CHINA HANDBOOK

1950

RICE $10.00

LESLIE D. BERRENT

OCTOBER 1954

Fort Knox
Kentucky

Leslie D. Berrent

AOB # 1
THE ARMORED SCHOOL
FORT KNOX —.

China Handbook

1950

Compiled by
The China Handbook Editorial Board

中華志

ROCKPORT PRESS, INC.

New York, 1950

Copyright 1950 by Rockport Press, Inc.

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

Printed in the United States of America by
MAGAZINE & PERIODICAL PRINTING
and PUBLISHING CO., INC.
NEW YORK

FOREWORD

This is the first China Handbook to be published in the United States since the edition of 1946. Important and significant changes have taken place in China in the four years that elapsed, changes which are without parallel in the long history of the land and its people.

In the 1920's communism invaded Asia and in 1945 became a disruptive force in China immediately following the Japanese surrender. The young republic, which has freed itself of the Japanese menace and shaken off a century of extraterritoriality, was soon compelled, with its exhausted economy, to combat another form of imperialistic aggression. The sorely needed programs of rehabilitation were either made impossible or seriously hampered by expanding military campaigns.

In 1949 when the Iron Curtain was rapidly descending on the China mainland, members of the China Handbook Editorial Board, under the direction of Dr. Hollington K. Tong, veteran editor and publisher and former director of the Chinese Government Information Office, kept up, under wartime conditions, the compilation of information from every available authoritative source to make this edition possible.

Thoroughly documented in this reference book are the problems engendered by the Chinese Communist rebellion. An entire chapter is devoted to the issue raised by the Chinese delegates in the United Nations that the U.S.S.R. violated the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the Charter of the U.N. Full texts of the statements by the Chinese representatives are appended.

An up-to-date account of the province of Taiwan (Formosa) leads off the chapter on China's 35 provinces. Hitherto unpublished detailed figures of the latest nationwide postwar population census and essential data on education, public health, commerce and industry, and communications are contained in this edition. Entire chapters are devoted to the nation's academic research, water conservancy, agriculture, judicial affairs, public finance, foreign trade, banking and currency, and mineral resources.

A Who's Who section lists several hundred prominent Chinese with biographical data. A chronology of important events in the history of China since 1911 treats each year in some detail up to the end of 1949. There is a factual account of the land and the people, their culture, history, religions, and philosophies. The country is described geologically and geographically with special attention to climate and meteorology. The principal seaports are described as to shipping conditions and facilities for wharfing and warehousing. In short, every effort has been made to provide in the 1950 China Handbook an authoritative source of current China information.

ROCKPORT PRESS, INC.

FOREWORD

This is the first China Handbook to be published in the United States since the edition of 1946. Important and significant changes have taken place in China in the four years that elapsed, changes which are without parallel in the long history of the land and its people.

In the 1920's communism invaded Asia and in 1945 became a disruptive force in China immediately following the Japanese surrender. The young republic, which has freed itself of the Japanese menace and shaken off a century of extraterritoriality, was soon compelled, with its exhausted economy, to combat another form of imperialistic aggression. The sorely needed programs of rehabilitation were either made impossible or seriously hampered by expanding military campaigns.

In 1949 when the Iron Curtain was rapidly descending on the China mainland, members of the China Handbook Editorial Board, under the direction of Dr. Hollington K. Tong, veteran editor and publisher and former director of the Chinese Government Information Office, kept up, under wartime conditions, the compilation of information from every available authoritative source to make this edition possible.

Thoroughly documented in this reference book are the problems engendered by the Chinese Communist rebellion. An entire chapter is devoted to the issue raised by the Chinese delegates to the United Nations that the U.S.S.R. violated the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the Charter of the U.N. Full texts of the statements by the Chinese representatives are appended.

An up-to-date account of the province of Taiwan (Formosa) leads off the chapter on China's 35 provinces. Hitherto unpublished detailed figures of the latest nationwide postwar population census and essential data on education, public health, commerce and industry, and communications are contained in this edition. Entire chapters are devoted to the nation's academic research, water conservancy, agriculture, judicial affairs, public finance, foreign trade, banking and currency, and mineral resources.

A Who's Who section lists several hundred prominent Chinese with biographical data. A chronology of important events in the history of China since 1911 treats each year in some detail up to the end of 1949. There is a factual account of the land and the people, their culture, history, religions, and philosophies. The country is described geologically and geographically with special attention to climate and meteorology. The principal seaports are described as to shipping conditions and facilities for wharfing and warehousing. In short, every effort has been made to provide in the 1950 China Handbook an authoritative source of current China information.

Rockport Press, Inc.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS, ANNIVERSARIES AND MEMORIAL DAYS

National holidays are marked with asterisks

January 1*.........Formal Founding of the Republic of China (1912)
February 5.........Farmer's Day
February 19.........New Life Movement Anniversary
March 8.........International Women's Day
March 12.........Arbor Day and Anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Death (1925)
March 29*.........Martyr's Day and Youth Day
April 4.........Children's Day
April 5.........Music Day
May 1.........International Labor Day
May 5.........Poet's Day
June 3.........Opium Suppression Day
June 6.........Engineer's Day
July 1.........Establishment of the National Government (1928)
July 7.........“Double Seventh”—Sino-Japanese War Anniversary (1937)
August 14.........Air Force Day
August 27*.........Confucius' Birthday (Teacher's Day)
September 1.........Journalist's Day
September 9.........Physical Culture Day
September 13.........“Mukden Incident”—Japanese Invasion Anniversary (1931)
October 10*.........“Double Tenth”—National Day
October 24.........United Nations Day
November 12*.........Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Birthday Anniversary
December 25.........National Renaissance Day

Chieh Chi (Chinese Farmer's Almanac), 1950

Hsiao Han (Slight Cold).........January 6
Ta Han (Great Cold).........January 20
Li Chun (Spring Begins).........February 4
Yu Shui (Spring Showers).........February 19
Ching Che (Awakened Insects).........March 6
Chun Fen (Vernal Equinox).........March 21
Ching Ming (Pure Brightness).........April 5
Ku Yu (Grain Rain).........April 21
Li Hsia (Summer Begins).........May 6
Hsiao Man (Grain Forms).........May 21
Mang Chung (Grain in Ears).........June 6
Hsia Chih (Summer Solstice).........June 22
Hsiao Shu (Slight Heat).........July 8
Ta Shu (Great Heat).........July 23
Li Chiu (Autumn Begins).........August 8
Chu Shu (Heat Ends).........August 24
Pai Lu (White Dew).........September 8
Chiu Fen (Autumnal Equinox).........September 23
Han Lu (Cold Dew).........October 9
Shuang Chiang (Frost Forms).........October 24
Li Tung (Winter Begins).........November 8
Hsiao Hsueh (Slight Snow).........November 23
Ta Hsueh (Great Snow).........December 8
Tung Chih (Winter Solstice).........December 22

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES CONVERSION TABLES

Chinese and Foreign Systems

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

Meter	*Shih Chih*	English Foot
1	3	3.2808
0.3000	1	1.0936
0.3048	0.9144	1

CAPACITY

Litre and *Shih Sheng*	English Gallon	American Gallon (liquid measure)	American Gallon (dry measure)
1	0.2200	0.2642	0.2270
4.5460	1	1.2009	1.0321
3.7853	0.8327	1	0.8594
4.4048	0.9689	1.1636	1

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

Kilometer	*Shih Li*	Mile
1	2	0.6214
0.5000	1	0.3107
1.6093	3.2187	1

WEIGHTS

Kilogram	*Shih Chin* (New Catty)	Pound
1	2	2.2046
0.5000	1	1.1023
0.4536	0.9072	1

AREA

Are	*Shih Mow*	Acre
1	0.1500	0.0247
6.6000	1	0.1647
40.4685	6.0703	1

WEIGHTS

Tonne	Picul	English Ton (long ton)	American Ton (short ton)
1	20	0.9842	1.1023
0.0500	1	0.0402	0.0551
1.0160	20.3209	1	1.1200
0.9072	18.1437	0.8929	1

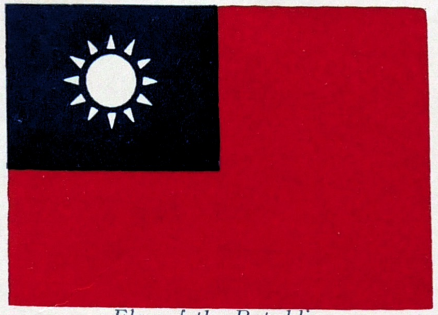
Kilogram	Pound
1	2.204622
5	11.023112
10	22.046223
15	33.069335
20	44.092447
25	55.115559
30	66.138670
35	77.161782
40	88.184894
45	99.208005
50	110.231117
55	121.254229
60	132.277340
65	143.300452
70	154.323563
75	165.346676
80	176.369787
85	187.392899
90	198.416011
95	209.439122

Pound	Kilogram
1	0.453592
5	2.267962
10	4.535924
15	6.803886
20	9.071849
25	11.339811
30	13.607778
35	15.875735
40	18.143697
45	20.411659
50	22.679621
55	24.947584
60	27.215546
65	29.483508
70	31.751470
75	34.019432
80	36.287394
85	38.555356
90	40.823318
95	43.091281

WEIGHT EQUIVALENTS

Tonne	Quintal	Kilogram	Picul New Scale	Catty New Scale	Pound Old Scale	Catty Old Style	Picul Old Scale	Long Ton
1	10.0	1000.0	20.0	2000.0	2204.62	1653.465	16.53465	0.9842059
0.1	1	100.0	2.0	200.0	220.462	165.3465	1.653465	0.09842059
0.001	0.01	1	0.02	2.0	2.20462	1.65365	0.01653465	0.0009842059
0.05	0.5	50.0	1	100.0	110.231	82.6735	0.826735	0.0492103
0.0005	0.005	0.5	0.01	1	1.10231	0.826735	0.00826735	0.000492103
0.00045359	0.0045359	0.45359	0.00907186	0.907186	1	0.75	0.0075	0.0004464285
0.00060479	0.0060479	0.60479	0.0120958	1.20958	1.33333	1	0.01	0.00059524
1.0160475	10.160475	1016.0475	20.321	2032.1	2240.0	1680.0	16.80	1
0.060479	0.60479	60.479	1.20958	120.958	133.333	100.0	1	0.059524

Flag of the Republic of China



Flag of the Republic

The history of the Chinese national flag—the *White-Sun-in-Blue-Sky-over-Red-Ground* dates back to 1906 when this emblem was decided upon as the Chinese national standard by Dr. Sun Yat-sen at the *Tung Meng Hui* assembly held in Tokyo. When the Republic of China was founded in 1912, however, the five-barred (red-yellow-blue-white-black) flag was adopted by the government, while the design created by Dr. Sun and his revolutionary comrades was made the naval flag of China.

Following the successful completion of the Northern Punitive Expedition the *White-Sun-in-Blue-Sky-over-Red-Ground* was officially adopted as the national flag on October 8, 1928 (the 17th year of the Republic of China).

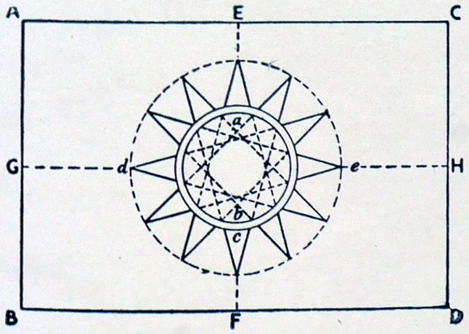
The 12 points of the *White-Sun* in the emblem represent the 12 two-hour periods of the day. They also symbolize the spirit of unceasing progress.

The colors of blue, white and red represent collectively the *Three People's Principles*. The color symbolization is as follows:

BLUE — Equality, justice, and *Min Chuan* (principle of democracy);

WHITE — Fraternity, frankness and *Min Sheng* (principle of people's livelihood);

RED—Liberty, sacrifice, and *Min Chu* (principle of nationalism).



AB:AC=2:3

Ab:EF=3:8 bc=1/15ab

de:GH=2:4

Angle of each point—30°

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

General Information **1-32**

Area 1

Administrative Divisions 1

Geological Structure 1

Geographical Divisions 4

Coastal Configuration 4

Mountains 5

Rivers 5

Deserts and Steppes 8

Lakes 8

Climate 9

Population 17

Overseas Chinese 20

Religion 24

Catholic Church 27

Protestant Church 29

Language 30

CHAPTER 2

The Provinces **33-70**

Taiwan 33

Anhwei 39

Antung 40

Chahar 41

Chekiang 41

Chinghai 42

Fukien 43

Heilungkiang 43

Hokiang 44

Honan 45

Hopei 46

Hsingan 46

Hunan 47

Hupeh 48

Jehol 49

Kansu 49

Kiangsi 50

Kiangsu 51

Kirin 52

Kwangsi 53

Kwangtung 53

Kweichow 54

Liaoning 55

Liaopei 56

Ningsia 57

Nunkiang 58

Shansi 59

Shantung 59

Shensi 60

Sikang 61

Sinkiang 61

Suiyuan 62

Sungkiang 63

Szechwan 64

Yunnan 64

Tibet 66

Mongolia 68

CHAPTER 3

Major Seaports 71-84
Shanghai 71
Dairen 73
Hulutao 74
Tangku 74
Tientsin 75
Tsingtao 75
Kowloon 76
Chankiang (Kwangchowwan) 76
Canton 76
Keelung 77
Antung 78
Port Arthur 78
Yingkow (Newchwang) 79
Chinwangtao 79
Chefoo 80
Weihaiwei 80
Lienyun (Lien Yun Harbor) 80
Ningpo 81
Yungkia (Wenchow) 81
Foochow 81
Amoy 82
Swatow 82
Kungpei 82
Kongmoon 83
Pakhoi 83
Hoikow 83
Yulin 83
Kaohsiung 83

CHAPTER 4

A Brief History of China 85-97
Proto-China 85
Ancient Philosophy 86
Tartar Invasion 87
Khitans and Mongols 87
Taiping Rebellion 88
Boxer Uprising 89
Northern Expedition 90
Invasion of Manchuria 91
Sino-Japanese War 91
Communist Rebellion 93
Table of Dynasties 93
Presidents of the Republic 97

CHAPTER 5

Chronology of Major Events ..98-137

CHAPTER 6

Constitutional Movement 138-155
Political Council 138
National Assembly 139
Political Consultation Conference .. 140
Draft Constitution 141
Government Reorganization 142
Election of President 143

CHAPTER 7

Government Structure 156-179
National Assembly 156
Presidency 156
Executive Yuan 157
Legislative Yuan 158
Judicial Yuan 159
Examination Yuan 160
Control Yuan 161
Provincial Government 164
Municipal Government 165
Hsien Government 166
Local Representative Bodies 167
Local Self-Government 169
Government Directory 171

Organic Law of *Tsungtungfu* 172
Organic Laws of Five Yuan 173

CHAPTER 8

National Defense 180-201
Army 180
China's Strategy 181
Campaigns Fought 182
Surrender of Japanese Troops 184
Repatriation of Japanese 186
Reorganization of Chinese Army .. 187
Army Ranks and Insignia 188
Navy 189
Naval Ranks and Insignia 191
Air Force 192
Air Force Ranks and Insignia 197
Combined Service Forces 197

CHAPTER 9

Judicial System and Police ..202-235
Courts 202
Court Jurisdiction over Foreigners . 210
Judicial Survey 214
Prisons 215
Judicial Reforms 216
Advocates and Advocates Act 219
Police 225
Police Personnel 232

CHAPTER 10

Political Parties 236-259
Kuomintang 236
Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Political Theory 238
Postwar Developments 239
Present Kuomintang Organization . 240
Important Kuomintang Documents . 243
Kuomintang Officers 250
Communist Party 252
Armed Rebellion 252
"Soviet Republic of China" 253
Present Communist Organization .. 253
Communist Central Committee (1948) 253
Democratic League 254
Young China Party 255
Democratic Socialist Party 257
Other Parties and Groups 258

CHAPTER 11

The Communist Issue 260-283
Early Kuomintang-Communist Relations 260
Communist Pledges 261
Summary of Government-Communist Talks 264
Political Consultation Conference .. 266
Northeast Problem 270
Peace Negotiations 271
End of Marshall Mission 272
Recent Developments 274
Harbin and Moscow Pacts 278
"People's Republic of China" 279
Generalissimo Chiang's Statement . 279

CHAPTER 12

Foreign Affairs 284-347
Relations with United States 285
Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation 286
General Statement of Work and Policy of Chinese Government ... 301
China Aid Program 307
Economic Aid Agreement 309
Rural Reconstruction Commission.. 315
Relations with United Kingdom.... 319

Kowloon City Incidents 320
China-Hongkong Customs Agreement 322
Relations with U.S.S.R. 323
Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.. 323
Agreement of Chinese Changchun Railway 325
Agreement on Port of Dairen...... 328
Agreement on Port Arthur......... 328
Entry of Soviet Forces into Manchuria 330
Severance of Relations with U.S.S.R. 334
Relations with France 334
Relations with Australia, Canada and New Zealand 335
Relations with Asiatic Countries... 335
Outer Mongolia 338
Sino-Philippine Treaty of Amity... 339
Chiang-Quirino Conference 340
Relations with European Countries. 341
Relations with Near Eastern and African Countries 345
Relations with the Vatican........ 346
Relations with Latin American Countries 343

CHAPTER 13

China In The United Nations .348-380
Security Council 348
China's Case in U.N. 348
Statement of Dr. T. F. Tsiang..... 351

CHAPTER 14

Industry 381-402
Factories in China 381
Industrial Rehabilitation 384
Postwar Production 391
China Textile Industries, Inc....... 393
National Resources Commission ... 394
Industrial Research 397

CHAPTER 15

Mineral Resources 403-416
Mining Areas 403
Reserves and Production 403
Principal Mineral Production....... 406
Coal Reserves 407
Estimated Iron Reserves 409

CHAPTER 16

Water Conservancy 417-430
Administration 417
Farmland Irrigation 417
Flood Control 420
River Improvement Schemes 428
National Conservancy Reconstruction Projects 429
YVA Project 430

CHAPTER 17

Labor 431-438
Policy and Program 431
Administration 431
Labor Organizations 432
Wage Stabilization 433
Labor Disputes and Strikes........ 434
Labor Participation in Government. 434
Labor Welfare 435
China and I.L.O. 438

CHAPTER 18

Commodity Prices 439-449
Wartime Conditions 439
Postwar Period 439

Control Measures 440
Index Numbers of Prices 442

CHAPTER 19

Public Finance 450-469
Budgetary Deficits 450
Budget of 1947 452
Budget of 1948 453
Direct Taxes 456
Customs Revenue 458
Commodity Tax 460
Salt Tax 462
Land Tax 464
Foreign Loans 465
Termination of Boxer Indemnity.. 466
Domestic Loans 467

CHAPTER 20

Currency 470-474
Fapi—Legal Tender 470
Gold Yuan 471
Silver Yuan 472
Local Currencies 473
Coins 474

CHAPTER 21

Banking 475-497
Joint Administrative Office of Four Government Banks 475
Central Bank of China 479
Bank of China 479
Bank of Communications 479
Farmers' Bank of China 483
Central Trust of China 486
Postal Remittances and Savings Bank 487
Local Banks 488
Commercial Banks 489
Government Supervision over Banks 491
Control of Foreign Exchange..... 493
Insurance 495

CHAPTER 22

Cooperatives 498-501
Administration 498
Development of Cooperatives..... 498
Cooperative Finance 499
Industrial Cooperatives 501

CHAPTER 23

Foreign Trade 502-530
General Review 502
Chief Imports 504
Chief Exports 506
Export-Import Board 512
Control Measures 513
Customs Tariff 515
Foreign Trade Regulations 516
Exchange Surrender Certificates ... 523
Imports Paid with Foreign Exchange Abroad 526

CHAPTER 24

Agriculture 531-560
General Review 531
Agricultural Production 532
Food Production Programs 549
Agricultural Research 550
Silk Production 556
Tea, Tobacco, Tung Oil.......... 558
Cotton Production 554

CHAPTER 25

Food 561-567

Administrative Machinery 561
Production and Consumption 561
Food Procurement 562
Food Distribution 565
Storage and Transportation 566
Local Food Reserve 567

CHAPTER 26

Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries 568-577
Forestry 568
Forest Area and Timber Reserve... 569
Animal Husbandry 571
Fisheries 574
Fisheries Administration 576

CHAPTER 27

Land 578-608
Tenure and Tenancy 578
Land Administration 578
Owner Farmers 580
Protection of Tenants 584
Land Distribution in Pacification Areas 584
Regional Land Reform 586
Regulations Governing Lease of Private Farm Land in Taiwan... 586
Agricultural Land Reform Bill..... 589
Land Law 590

CHAPTER 28

Communications 609-632
Railways 609
Construction in Wartime 609
Postwar Rehabilitation 610
Construction of New Railways..... 617
Highways 620
National Highways Network....... 620
National Highways Administration. 621
Provincial Highways 622
Shipping 622
Postwar Shipping Operation....... 624
Civil Aviation 626
China National Aviation Corporation 626
Central Air Transport Corporation. 629
Civil Air Transport 629
Civil Aeronautics Administration... 631
Transfer of Airlines 632

CHAPTER 29

Postal Service and Tele-Communications 633-637
Postal Administration 633
Postal Remittances and Savings.... 634
Tele-Communications 634
Telegraph 635
Radiogram 635
Telephone 636
Radio Broadcasting 637

CHAPTER 30

Education 638-656
Primary Education 638
Secondary Education 639
Higher Education 642
Ten-Year Education Plan 644
List of Institutions of Higher Learning 646
Education Finances 651
Students Studying Abroad 651
Social Education 654
Border Education 655
Overseas Chinese Education 656

CHAPTER 31

Research 657-670
The Academia Sinica 657
Organic Law of Academia Sinica.. 662
Constitution of Council of Academia Sinica 663
National Academy of Peiping...... 664
National Geological Survey of China 666
China Institute of Geography 668
National Institute for Compilation and Translation 669

CHAPTER 32

International Cultural Cooperation 671-677
Sino-American Cooperation 671
The China Foundation 671
U. S. Education Foundation in China 672
Sino-British Cooperation 674
Board of Trustees for Sino-British Educational and Cultural Endowment Fund 674
The British Council 676

CHAPTER 33

The Press 678-682
Newspapers 678
News Agencies 679
Periodicals 680
Newsprint 680
Journalism Education 680
Official Information Service 681
Foreign Press in China........... 681
Newsmen's Organizations 682
Publication Law 682

CHAPTER 34

Public Health and Medicine..683-706
Health Administration 683
Local Health Administrations 684
Medical Institutions 686
Medical and Public Health Personnel 688
Medical Supplies 689
Epidemic Control 691
Epidemiological Statistics, 1945-47. 692
Epidemic Prevention 694
Quarantine Service 695
Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign 696
Maternity and Child Health....... 697
School Hygiene 697
Industrial Hygiene 697
Army Medical Service 699
Chinese Red Cross 701
Opium Suppression 702
Postwar Medical Rehabilitation.... 703
American Bureau for Medical Aid to China 706

CHAPTER 35

Relief and Rehabilitation 707-729
China National Relief and Rehabiltation Administration 707
CNRRA Activities 707
Financing of CNRRA Program.... 709
CNRRA's Total Expenditures 709
Allocation of UNRRA Supplies.... 710
Suspension of UNRRA Supplies... 712
Repatriation of Displaced Persons.. 713
Relief in Communist Areas........ 716
CNRRA's Accomplishments 718
UNRRA in China 720
UNRRA Operations 721
CNRRA-UNRRA Successor Organizations 722
Executive Yuan Commission for American Relief Supplies 724
China Relief Mission 724
Council for United States Aid..... 725
ECA China Program 726
Rural Reconstruction Program 728

CHAPTER 36

Who's Who 730-786

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INFORMATION

AREA

At the end of the Sino-Japanese War, the territory of the Republic of China underwent two major changes—the independence of Outer Mongolia through a plebiscite held in accordance with the provisions of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of August 15, 1945, and the retrocession of Taiwan (Formosa), a Chinese territory ceded to Japan after the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95.

The northernmost point of the boundaries of China is at latitude 53° 57′ N., the Sayan Mountains, as Tannu Tuva is still considered Chinese territory. The easternmost boundary is at longitude 135° 4′ E. at the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri Rivers. Both the southernmost and westernmost borders remain to be defined. The Pamirs in the west constitute a contested area among China, the U.S.S.R. and Afghanistan. The sovereignty of the Tuansha Islands (the Coral Islands) in the south is sought by China, the Republic of the Philippines and Indo-China. The northern section of the boundary between China and Burma also remains to be demarcated.

The exact size of China at present cannot be determined, since the boundary lines with Outer Mongolia are not yet defined. By adding the areas of the various administrative units as provided by the Ministry of Interior in 1947, China's domain is estimated at 9,814,247.05 sq. km. excluding the exact area measurements of Dairen and Mukden.

China is bordered by Korea, Siberia, Outer Mongolian Republic, Soviet Central Asia Republics, Afghanistan, India, Burma, Indo-China and the Pacific Ocean.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

By act of the National Government on June 5, 1947, the country is divided into 35 provinces, one territory, and 12 municipalities under the Executive Yuan. The provinces are further divided into 208 administrative districts, 2,023 *hsien,* 55 municipalities under provincial administration, 35 preparatory *hsien,* and one administrative bureau.

The 12 municipalities which come under the Executive Yuan are: Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tsingtao, Tientsin, Chungking, Dairen, Harbin, Hankow, Canton, Sian and Mukden.

GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

The framework of the land mass of China was laid in the pre-Cambrian times. Its present features remain generally within the original framework, which is constructed by a combination of three sets of tectonic lines: (1) the northeast to southwest geosynclines and geanticlines, (2) the east to west fold zones, and (3) the geotectonic shear forms.

The continuous depression of the Sungari-Liao river valley, the north China plain and the central Yangtze basin have formed a synclinorium since the late Mesozoic times. It is called the Cathaysian geosyncline bordered on the west by the Khingan-Shansi-Kweichow anticlinorium and on the east by the Liaotung-Shantung highlands and the upland of southeast China. These regional belts were folded into a series of parallel synclines and anticlines forming a complex structure on a grand scale with their general axes striking northeast. A detailed study of tectonic evidence indicates that these Cathaysian trends are a group of compressive features due to a pressure coming from the northwest and a powerful resistance on the southeast.

The Cathaysian geosynclines and anticlines are interrupted at regular intervals by another group of features which run from east to west. They are the Tannu Kentai range forming the northern margin of the Mongolia block, the Yinshan range dividing the Mongolia block from the north China block, the Tsingling zone separating the north China block from the central China block, and

TABLE 1—AREA
(December, 1947)

	Square Kilometers
Provinces	
Kiangsu	108,314
Chekiang	102,646
Anhwei	146,303
Kiangsi	165,258
Hupeh	186,229
Hunan	204,771
Szechwan	303,318
Sikang	451,521
Fukien	120,114
Taiwan	35,961
Kwangtung	218,511
Kwangsi	218,923
Yunnan	420,465
Kweichow	170,196
Hopei	140,253
Shantung	146,736
Honan	165,141
Shansi	156,419
Shensi	187,691
Kansu	391,506
Ningsia	233,320
Chinghai	667,236
Suiyuan	329,397
Chahar	283,675
Jehol	179,982
Liaoning	68,303.43
Antung	62,279.23
Liaopei	121,624.17
Kirin	72,675.93
Sungkiang	84,559.31
Hokiang	135,406.27
Heilungkiang	257,762.75
Nunkiang	67,034.13
Hsingan	278,436.91
Sinkiang	1,711,931
Municipalities under the Executive Yuan	
Nanking	465.75
Shanghai	893.25
Peiping	707
Tsingtao	749
Tientsin	54.50
Chungking	300
Dairen	(Area undetermined)
Harbin	803.80
Hankow	133.71
Canton	253.25
Sian	207.66
Mukden	(Area undetermined)
Territory	
Tibet	1,215,780
TOTAL	9,814,247.05

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (1947)

Name	Provincial Capital	Administrative District	*Hsien* (County)	Municipalities	Preparatory *Hsien*	Administrative Bureau	Mongol Banner
Provinces							
Kiangsu	Chinkiang	9	62	2	1	..	..
Chekiang	Hangchow	6	77	1	..	..	..
Anhwei	Hofei	10	63	1	..	..	..
Kiangsi	Nanchang	9	81	1	..	..	..
Hupeh	Wuchang	8	70	1	..	..	..
Hunan	Changsha	8	77	2	..	..	..
Szechwan	Chengtu	16	139	2	3	1	..
Sikang	Kangting	2	48	..	4	..	..
Fukien	Foochow	7	67	2	..	..	..
Taiwan	Taipei	..	8	9	..	..	..
Kwangtung	Canton	9	99	2	..	..	..
Kwangsi	Kweilin	9	99	1	..	..	..
Yunnan	Kunming	13	112	1	16	..	..
Kweichow	Kweiyang	6	78	1	1	..	..
Hopei	Paoting	15	132	2	2	..	..
Shantung	Tsinan	16	108	3	..	..	..
Honan	Kaifeng	12	111	..	..	..	..
Shansi	Taiyuan	14	105	1	..	..	..
Shensi	Sian	11	92	..	..	..	..
Kansu	Lanchow	9	69	1	2	..	..
Ningsia	Yinchwan	..	13	1	..	..	3
Chinghai	Sining	1	19	1	1	..	29
Suiyuan	Kweisui	4	20	3	..	..	17
Chahar	Kalgan	4	19	1	..	..	19
Jehol	Chengteh	..	20	..	..	..	20
Liaoning	Mukden	..	22	4	..	..	..
Antung	Tunghwa	..	18	2	..	..	..
Liaopei	Liaoyuan	..	18	1	..	..	6
Kirin	Kirin	..	18	2	..	..	1
Sungkiang	Mutankiang	..	15	2	..	..	..
Hokiang	Kiamusze	..	17	1	..	..	..
Heilungkiang	Peian	..	25	1	..	..	1
Nunkiang	Tsitsihar	..	18	1	..	..	2
Hsingan	Hailar	..	7	1	..	..	11
Sinkiang	Tihwa	10	77	1	4	..	23
Territory							
Tibet	Lhasa	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTAL		208	2,023	55	34	1	132

Source: Ministry of Interior.

the Nanling zone forming the natural divide between the central China block and the south China block. These ranges, together with the Tibetan Plateau, have forced all the rivers of China to flow in a general west-east direction. They also sharpen the climatic contrast and regional differences in other geographical features.

Of all the shear forms developed in China, the E type consisting of a group of folds in the shape of a bow and arrow is the most important. All the E shear forms are developed at the east end of the east-west fold ranges.

The interference of the east-west fold zones with the Cathaysian geosynclines and geanticlines, and the existence of shear forms to the east of the fold zones, it was suggested by Dr. J. S. Lee, may go back to the late Paleozoic times, when the Asiatic mass sheared southward

against the Pacific floor, accompanied by a differential westward movement.

Among the most striking changes that have taken place in China during recent geological times are the regional uplifting in the mountainous southwest and subsidence in the lowland. The Tibetan plateau, which has already attained lofty heights, is probably still rising.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS

Within the boundaries of China are arrayed numerous physiographic features which include almost every known type of topographic expression. Among them, plains occupy 984,000 sq. km. or 10 percent of the national total area, basins total 1,554,000 sq. km. or 16 percent, hilly regions 882,000 sq. km. or 9 percent, plateaus 3,636,000 sq. km. or 34 percent, and mountains 3,118,000 sq. km. or 30 percent. The nation can be divided into 19 natural districts:

Tibetan Plateau.—A mass of folding mountains with an average height of 4,000-6,000 meters. In the north is the Kunlun range, in the south the Himalayas and in the east the Transverse mountains in Yunnan and Sikang.

The Zongor (Sungaria) and Tarim Basins—The Tienshan range cuts Sinkiang into two basins, the Zongor on the north and the Tarim on the south.

The Mongolian Steppe—The steppe connects the Sinkiang basins to the west, and is bordered by the Yinshan range on the south, the Khingan highland on the east and the Arctic on the north.

The Northeastern Plain—South of the Kingan highland including the Sungari and Liao river valleys.

The Liaoning and Kirin Hills—Southeast of the Northeastern Plain and east of Harbin and Mukden.

The Shantung Peninsula—South of Po Hai.

The North China Plain—The area east of the Taihangshan range and north of the Hwaiyang mountains, the lower sections of the Yellow and Hwai rivers.

The Shansi Plateau—West of the Taihangshan range and east of the Luliangshan range, including the Fen river basin.

The Shensi Basin—West of the Luliangshan range and east of Kansu, including the Hotao (Yellow river bend) and the Wei river basin.

The Kansu Corridor—West of the Liupanshan range, north of the Kilienshan range, south of the Ningsia desert and connects the Shensi basin on the east.

The Lower Yangtze—The area between the Hwaiyang mountains and Hangchow bay.

The Southeastern Hills—The coastal provinces of Chekiang and Fukien with the Wuyishan range as the northern extremity.

The Central Yangtze Basin—Between the Tsinling and the Nanling ranges including Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi and southern Anhwei.

The Szechwan Basin—Bordered on the north by the Tapashan range and Tsinling range, the Sikang mountains on the west, Taliangshan range on the southwest and Talowshan range on the southeast.

The Kweichow Plateau—South of the Szechwan basin, including all of Kweichow province.

The Southern Coastal Area—South of the Nanling range including all of Kwangtung province.

The Kwangsi Tableland—All of Kwangsi province.

The Southwestern Mountains—In Yunnan province.

The Sikang Mountains—In Sikang province.

COASTAL CONFIGURATION

The coastline of China consists of two parts, the continental coastline and the islandic coastline, with a total length of 20,700 km. The continental coastline, 11,100 km. long, extends from the mouth of the Yalu river in Antung to Tunghing in southwestern Kwangtung, touching Antung, Liaoning, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, and Kwangtung. Of the total, 4,000 km. front the South China Sea, 3,000 km. the East China Sea, and 4,000 km. the Yellow Sea, including the 1,900 km. defining the Po Hai.

The islandic coastline totals 9,600 km. including the 1,476 km.-circumference of Taiwan and the Pescadores, and 1,200 km.-long shoreline of Hainan island.

Geologically, China's continental coastline is composed of two sections. The northern section which is north of the Hangchow bay is alluvial in nature, except the Liaotung and Shantung peninsulas; while the southern is mainly granitic. Along the two northern peninsulas and the southern coast are innumerable islands, harbors and inlets. Shoals fringe the northern coast and navigation depends on channels made by rivers.

A chain of volcanic islands—Kuriles, Japan, Liuchius, Taiwan, Philippines—separate the China seas from the western Pacific. The location and approximate area of the China seas are:

The South China Sea (north of latitude 4° N and south of the Taiwan strait): 2,000,000 sq. km.

The East China Sea (from the Taiwan strait to the estuary of the Yangtze river): 700,000 sq. km.

The Yellow Sea (north of the estuary of the Yangtze river and including the Po Hai, also known as Gulfs of Chihli and Liaotung): 640,000 sq. km.

The depth of the China seas varies from 20 m. in the Po Hai to 2,000 m. in the South China Sea. The average depth of the Po Hai, however, is 40 m. with the deepest part located near the southern part of the Liaotung peninsula measuring 50-200 m. The Yellow Sea has an average depth of 100 m. About two-thirds of the area of the East China Sea is 200 m. deep. In the South China Sea, only 600,000 sk. km. measures within 200 m., the rest ranging from 1,500 to 2,000 m. deep.

MOUNTAINS

China is a mountainous country. As estimated by Dr. Wong Wen-hao, regions 1,000 m. above sea level comprise more than 68% of the total area of China; hilly land between 500 and 1,000 m. in altitude, 18%; and flat land below 500 m., only 14%. Table 3, shown below, gives heights in meters of some of the better known mountain peaks in China.

RIVERS

Three large rivers drain the three natural divisions of China—the Yellow river in the north, the Yangtze river in the central, and the West (Pearl) river in the south.

THE YELLOW RIVER

The Yellow river (Huang Ho) is 4,672 km. long and drains 531,200 sq. km. of territory in Chinghai, Kansu, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Hopei and Shantung. Its source is the Khotun-Nor in the 5,000-meter Bayenkala mountains, part of the Kunlun range.

Below Chengchow in central Honan, the river changed its course seven times through Hopei, Shantung and Kiangsu provinces, between the 23rd century B.C. and the summer of 1937. The last prewar change of the channel was in 1854 when the river left its old course in northern Kiangsu and emptied into Po Hai through northern Shantung. In June, 1938, when a severe engagement was fought between the Chinese and Japanese armies in central Honan, the river dikes at Chungmou gave way under fire and its waters

TABLE 3—MOUNTAIN PEAKS

Name (*shan* = mountain)	Location	Peak Height (meters)
Kunlun	Sinkiang-Tibet-Chinghai	7,724
Minga Gongka	Sikang	7,500
Burokhoro	Tibet	7,200
Kailas	Tibet	7,073
Karakorum	Sinkiang-Tibet	6,500
Kilienshan	Kansu	5,928
Tienshan	Sinkiang	5,400
Tsinling	Shensi	4,000
Yushan	Taiwan	3,950
Tsekaoshan	Taiwan	3,931
Siukulanshan	Taiwan	3,797
Omeishan	Szechwan	3,200
Tannu Ola	Tannu Tuva	3,046
Wutaishan	Chansi	3,040
Tapashan	Szechwan	3,000
Changpaishan	Liaoning	2,741
Huangshan	Anhwei	1,910
Taishan	Shantung	1,545
Tienmushan	Chekiang	1,520
Lushan	Kiangsi	1,480
Wutzeshan	Kwangtung	1,350
Hengshan	Hunan	1,340

followed the Chialu and Tasha rivers in eastern Honan and entered the Hwai river, afterwards emptying into the East China Sea in northern Kiangsu.

Main tributaries of the Yellow river include:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Tao River	Kansu	231
Huang River	Chinghai-Kansu	230
Wuting River	Suiyuan-Shensi	230
Yen River	Shensi	230
Fen River	Shansi	692
Wei River	Shensi	864
Lo River	Honan	404
Sin River	Honan	288

THE YANGTZE RIVER

The Yangtze river forms the main artery of trade and communications in central China. The 5,530-km. river drains 1,726,400 sq. km. of territory in Chinghai, Sikang, Yunnan, Szechwan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhwei and Kiangsu.

The river springs from the Tagh-Ulan mountain, part of the Kunlun range, on the Chinghai-Tibet-Sinkiang border. At Batang in Sikang, the river-bed is 3,000 m. above sea level. It drops steadily to 350 m. at Ipin. The river is only 90 m. in altitude at Ichang where the Yangtse gorges end. It is navigable for junks to the Szechwan-Sikang-Yunnan border and for steamers to Pingshan above Ipin.

The main tributaries of the Yangtze river are:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Yulung River	Sikang	1,324
Min River	Szechwan	864
Tou River	Szechwan	346
Chialing River	Szechwan	1,000
Wu River	Szechwan-Kweichow	922
Li River	Hunan	404
Yuan River	Hunan	864
Tze River	Hunan	749
Siang River	Hunan	1,152
Han River	Shensi-Hupeh	1,210
Kan River	Kiangsi	864

THE WEST RIVER

The West river (Si Kiang), or Pearl river (Chu Kiang), is 1,958 km. long and drains 431,600 sq. km. in Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi and Kwangtung. It stems from Suanwei in northern Yunnan and empties into the South China Sea. It is known as the Hung (Red) river along the upper section.

The main part of the West river and its tributaries pass through a mountainous region, only the last 150 km. falling within the delta area. The river is navigable for steamers up to Wuchow, beyond which junks and steam launches reach Kweichow and interior Kwangsi as well as the upper reaches of the North and East rivers.

The main tributaries of the West river are:

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Peipang River	Kweichow-Kwangsi	350
Liu River	Kwangsi	520
Yu River	Kwangsi	750
Kwei River	Kwangsi	350
Ho River	Kwangtung	230
Pei (North) River	Kwangtung	350
Tung (East) River	Kwangtung	460

OTHER RIVERS

The Northeastern Group—The four northeastern provinces have four major rivers. They are:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Amur River	Heilungkiang	4,672 (3,744 in China)	903,000
Liao River	Jehol-Liaoning	1,440	176,000
Yalu River	Liaoning	806	39,800
Tumen River	Liaoning-Kirin	460	28,200

The Coastal Group—A number of shorter independent rivers are found in the coastal provinces, emptying into the Po Hai and the East China Sea. They include:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Lwan River	Chahar-Jehol-Hopei	804	49,800
Pai (or Hai) River	Shansi-Hopei	806	182,600
Hwai River	Honan-Anhwei-Kiangsu	1,000	200,000
Tsientang River	Anhwei-Chekiang	460	54,800
Min River	Fukien	576	73,000

The Southwestern Group—Most southwestern rivers begin in China but empty into the Pacific or the Indian Oceans through foreign countries. The principal ones are:—

Name	Location	Length in China (kilometers)	Drainage in China (sq. km.)
Red River	Yunnan-Indo-China	1,152	76,400
Salween River	Yunnan-Burma	2,016	86,300
Mekong River	Sikang-Yunnan-Indo-China	2,000	116,200
Tsangpo (Brahmaputra) River	Tibet-Sikang-India	1,843	295,500

The Inland Group—Inland rivers are found in Sinkiang, Mongolia, Chinghai, Ningsia, Tibet, Chahar and Suiyuan, the larger ones being in Sinkiang and Mongolia. Among them are:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Tarim River	Sinkiang	2,190	198,400
Selenga River	Mongolia	1,267*	325,400
Kobdo River	Mongolia	691	45,200
Ili River	Sinkiang	524*	76,400

* In China.

The Grand Canal—The Grand Canal is the oldest and longest canal in existence, extending from Peiping to Hangchow, covering a distance of 2,074 km., draining 159,400 sq. km. in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung and Hopei. It crosses the Yellow and Yangtze rivers.

LAKES

China has few structural lakes. Most large ones are found along the great rivers, serving as natural reservoirs. The locations and areas of the important lakes in China are given in the following table:—

TABLE 4—LEADING LAKES IN CHINA

Names of Lakes	Location	Surface Area (sq. km.)	Depth (meters)
Tungting	Hunan	3,750	....
Poyang	Kiangsi	2,780	....
Tai Hu	Kiangsu-Chekiang	3,600	....
Hungtseh	Kiangsu-Anhwei	....	....
Tien Chih	Yunnan	....	1,910
Erhhai	Yunnan	....	1,970
Kokonor	Chinghai	4,200	3,180
Lop Nor	Sinkiang	swamp	3,205
Tengri	Tibet	2,460	5,000
Tangra	Tibet	1,400	4,000
Zilling	Tibet	1,860	3,000
Kyaring	Chinghai	570	4,000
Ngoring	Chinghai	650	4,000

DESERTS AND STEPPES

In the outer provinces of China are vast regions of deserts and steppes. The regions receive scanty rainfall and for the most part lie bare and desolate. The Mongolia and Sinkiang deserts and steppes in the north consist of flat, featureless plains floored with rocks and covered with a thin veneer of sand and pebbles, known as Gobi. They are surrounded by high mountains which keep out the moist winds from the distant oceans.

The chief deserts are the Gobi, the Ordos and the Ningsia. Extending westward is the Takla Makan desert in Sinkiang. The latter is the largest of all Chinest deserts.

On the margin of the deserts are the steppe lands largely in southern and eastern Mongolia and in the northwestern portions of the Tarim basin. There the rainfall is sufficient for a sparse growth of drought-resistant grasses, capable of supporting small herds of sheep and cattle. On the oases fed by mountain streams, agriculture is practised and permanent habitation found. Most cities and monasteries in Sinkiang are located in these oases.

Southeast of the Mongolia steppe land are the loess highlands of Kansu, Shensi and Shansi. They are formed by deposits of aeolian dust and silt blown from the western deserts. Steppe conditions also prevail on the loess hills dissected by rivers into deep valleys where alone cultivation is fruitful.

On the southwest is the Tibetan plateau. Its barrenness and desolation are due to its rocky height and cold climate. Tibet is 4,000 to 6,000 meters above sea level. The mountain lap is devoted to drought pasturing while limited habitation and cultivation are seen only in and along the valleys.

CLIMATE

There are three major factors which control the climate of China—distribution of land and water, mountain barriers and altitude, and cyclonic storms. The proximity of the Pacific Ocean on the one hand and the Eurasian Continent on the other brought about the unique wind system of eastern Asia. In the winter, high pressure centers over Siberia create what is known as the Siberian anticyclone. In the summer, the high-pressure system shifts to the mid-Pacific. This results in monsoonal winds from land to ocean in the winter and from ocean to land in the summer. Such phenomena affects the Chinese climate in two ways. First, since the winds come from the arid interior in the winter and the damp tropical ocean in the summer, rainfall throughout China has pronounced periodicity, with a maximum in the summer and a minimum in the winter. Second, since the winter winds blow from the cold north and the summer winds from the warm south, the seasonal temperature contrast is very pronounced.

In temperate zones the extra-tropical cyclonic storms are oftentimes the sole arbiter of weather changes, and this is true to a certain extent in China. During the period of 1921-30, there were 841 cyclones in China, averaging 84.1 a year. During 1947, a total of 58 cyclones were reported. Since summer cyclones carry more moisture, few of them yield an abundance of rainfall. The cyclones travel over China generally from west to east, but turn toward the northeast on reaching the coast. In the winter and the spring, cyclones are most numerous in the Yangtze valley whereas in July and August the number of storms in north China far exceeds that in central or south China.

Typhoons also play a prominent part in the climatology of China, especially from July to October. During 1947, 20 typhoons struck the Chinese coast. Of the total, 17 originated from the Philippines and three from the South China Sea.

China has a continental climate—extreme heat in the summer and extreme cold in the winter. The difference in temperature between the north and the south is much reduced in the summer but is greatly accentuated in the winter. The difference in temperature between western Heilungkiang and Hongkong, 2,100 miles apart, in January is 42° C., calculated at 2° C. for every 100 miles. In July, the difference is less than 10° C.

Taking the period with mean temperatures below 10° C. as winter and above 22° C. as summer, the distribution of four seasons in China can be seen from the following table:

TABLE 5—DISTRIBUTION OF FOUR SEASONS IN CHINA (in months)

Regions	Winter	Spring	Autumn	Summer
South China	0–0	4.0–7.0 of Spring and Autumn		5.0–8.0
Yunnan Plateau	2.0–3.0	9.0–10.0 of Spring and Autumn		0–0
Upper Yangtze Valley	2.5–3.0	2.5–3.0	2.5–3.0	3.5–5.0
Central Yangtze	3.5	2.0–2.5	2.0–2.5	4.0–4.5
Lower Yangtze	3.5–4.5	2.0–2.5	2.0	3.5–4.0
North China	5.0–6.0	2.0–3.0	2.0	2.0–3.0
Northwest China	5.5–6.5	2.0–3.0	1.5–2.5	1.0–3.0
Sinkiang	5.0–6.0	2.0–3.0	2.0	2.0
Liaoning-Kirin	6.0–7.0	2.0–2.5	2.0	1.0–2.5
Heilungkiang	8.0	4.0 of Spring and Autumn		0–0

Sea-level atmospheric pressure in China is highest in December or January and lowest in June or July. The mean annual range amounts to 12-18 mm. in south

China and the Yangtze estuary, and increases to 19-21 mm. in the central Yangtze valley and north China.

Winds in China are predominantly offshore in the winter and onshore in the summer, forming winter and summer monsoons. March, April and May, and September are transitional months. Cyclones passing over Mongolia, the Northeastern Provinces, north China, or the Yangtze valley may bring about winds from every point of the compass. The shifting of wind directions is limited to the lower strata of the atmosphere. Pilot balloon soundings in Peiping and Nanking have shown that above 3,000 meters westerly winds predominate.

Wind velocity is greatest during the months of March and April. The summer months are usually the calmest, except in the lower Yangtze valley, where the wind velocity in July is as great as that of March or April. Generally speaking, the wind velocity in China decreases from the coast inland, with places along the Fukien coast lying in the stormiest zone due to the tube effect of the winds in that territory.

As a result of monsoon winds, summer in China is usually damp, and autumn and winter dry. The mean annual relative humidity of the Northeastern Provinces and north China varies between 60-65 percent, and that of central and south China between 70-80 percent. Szechwan has a high humidity whereas Yunnan has a low humidity. In Sinkiang and Tibet, humidity is very low.

Regional variation of cloudiness in China follows closely the variation of humidity. The mean annual cloudiness decreases from seven in south China to four in north China. Sinkiang and the Northeastern Provinces have a mean cloudiness of 3.6. Omeishan in Szechwan has 8.1. In seasonal distribution, cloudiness varies greatly in different regions. In the Northeastern Provinces, north China, and west China, winter is the season of blue skies, whereas summer brings more clouds. In south China and the Yangtze valley, winter is the most gloomy period.

Both radiation and advection fogs are found in China, the former occurring over the mainland and the latter near the coast. Fogs are mostly met in winter on the mainland and spring fogs are most dominant in the Yangtze estuary. In Mongolia and Sinkiang fog is rare but the sky is covered with haze most of the time.

Frost occurs practically everywhere on the Chinese mainland. The regular yearly visitation of frost does not begin until about latitude 28° N. along the coast. Inland the occurrence of frost depends greatly upon the altitude and topography.

If the growing season is assumed to be limited to the period between the mean date of the last frost in the spring and the mean date of the first frost in the autumn, then the season varies in length from 12 months in south China, eight to nine months in the Yangtze valley, seven in the Yellow river basin, six in Hopei and Shansi, five in the Northeastern Provinces, to four in Tibet and Chinghai.

The main characteristic of rainfall regimes over all of China consists of a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. There are many irregularities due to cyclones, typhoons, and thunderstorms. Precipitation is either orographic or cyclonic; the latter may be due to continental depressions, typhoons, or heat thunderstorms. During the last 60 years of meteorological observation in Shanghai, the wettest summers were always the ones with the least southeasterly winds. Southerly monsoons are the moisture-bearing-winds in China but the moisture is only released by some mechanism—dynomical, thermal, or orographical—when they are lifted by a polar front, intense solar radiation, or a mountain slope.

Maximum rainfall occurs mostly in May in northern Kwantung, in June in the Yangtze valley, and in July in north China.

Precipitation due to continental depressions makes up more than 80 percent of the total in the spring and more than 50 percent in the summer. Typhoon rains decrease in profluence from south to north and from coast to inland. The proportion of thunderstorm rains is smaller than that of typhoon rains in the summer but greater in the spring. In eastern China, orographical rain assumes a place of paramount importance. Very often the same air mass which brings heat and drought to east China turns into drenching rain after climbing 2,000 or 3,000 m. upward.

Rainfall is plentiful south of the Yangtze valley (exceeding 1,000 mm.) and decreases rapidly towards the north and northwest. Besides, north China has an extreme variability in rainfall (more than 30 percent) from year to year.

Snowfall is not heavy in China as the winter months are dry. It rarely falls in the south but may occur from December to March in the Yangtze valley, November to April in north China, and October to April in the Northeastern Provinces.

TABLE 6.—MONTHLY AND ANNUAL TEMPERATURE MEANS IN CENTIGRADE, 1947

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Liaoning													
Mukden	−14.4	−12.3	3.3	9.8	16.3	21.0	24.1	23.0	17.6	9.6	−3.6	−17.4	6.4
Kirin													
Kirin	−18.7	−16.0	−6.6	7.2	14.6	19.4	22.7	21.0	15.5	7.1	−7.4	−20.2	3.2
Changchun	. .	−16.7	−6.7	7.7	15.0	20.1	22.3	20.7	15.7	7.4	−8.7	−21.5	. .
Jehol													
Chengteh	. .	. .	−0.8	13.1	17.8	23.3	24.2	23.3	16.6	9.9	−2.4	−10.6	. .
Hopei													
Peiping	−6.4	−4.0	2.3	15.1	20.1	24.0	26.0	24.9	18.5	11.6	0.9	−6.0	10.6
Tientsin	−4.4	−4.1	2.3	15.2	21.0	24.1	27.1	26.3	20.1	13.2	2.7	−5.2	11.5
Tangku	−4.3	−4.7	1.2	12.9	19.3	22.4	26.4	25.8	20.1	13.2	2.8	−5.2	10.8
Paoting	−5.7	−3.9	3.2	16.1	21.3	25.0	27.5	25.8	19.3	13.1	1.9	−5.9	11.5
Shantung													
Tsinan	−1.2	−0.5	−1.4	18.1	22.7	26.5	27.7	26.1	20.9	14.2	5.9	−0.1	13.2
Tsingtao	−1.2	2.4	3.1	11.0	15.3	19.5	23.2	24.9	20.5	14.2	6.9	−0.3	11.8
Chahar													
Kalgan	. .	. .	. .	11.9	16.8	21.3	24.4	21.6	14.7	7.9	−3.7	−11.0	. .
Shensi													
Yulin	−7.3	−5.3	1.7	12.9	18.9	22.3	26.0	21.5	14.5	7.9	1.1	−7.4	8.9
Hwashan	−6.0	−5.2	2.3	7.6	12.8	15.5	18.7	15.6	10.8	3.7	1.3	−5.9	5.9
Kansu													
Lanchow	−4.9	−1.8	6.4	13.4	19.3	21.3	23.5	21.4	15.9	9.0	3.0	−4.4	10.2
Wutu	5.2	6.5	13.9	18.3	22.5	24.2	25.9	23.9	21.6	14.5	11.6	4.6	16.1
Tunhwang	−6.7	−2.0	6.0	13.4	20.6	23.7	25.5	23.6	19.4	10.1	5.4	−6.9	11.0
Ansi	−7.7	−3.7	5.4	17.8	20.3	23.9	25.7	22.9	18.5	10.5	3.0	−9.0	10.6
Pingliang	−3.4	−0.9	5.4	12.1	17.3	19.9	23.2	19.1	14.7	8.2	5.3	−2.3	10.0
Ningsia													
Chungning	−5.5	−3.8	3.8	13.1	19.3	22.3	24.9	22.4	. .	9.1	3.6	−5.4	. .
Chungwei	−1.4	0.8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	23.7	17.5	11.2	4.9	−3.8	. .

TABLE 6.—*Continued*

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Chinghai													
Sining	−6.3	−3.2	4.1	9.5	13.9	16.0	18.5	17.0	13.5	6.9	2.5	−5.1	7.3
Tulan	−9.5	−5.8	−0.9	4.8	10.9	13.7	16.1	15.8	13.1	4.9	..	8.2	..
Szechwan													
Chungking	9.1	9.7	14.9	18.8	23.3	24.7	28.0	29.2	26.3	16.4	15.6	9.2	18.8
Neikiang	8.3	9.2	15.1	18.0	23.6	23.7	27.0	27.4	25.1	16.2	15.6	..	..
Chengtu	6.8	7.5	14.1	17.8	23.7	23.7	25.8	25.7	24.2	15.7	13.9	7.2	17.2
Loshan	8.0	8.7	15.3	18.1	23.6	23.6	25.6	25.9	23.7	15.8	15.5	8.5	17.7
Sikang													
Kangting	−0.2	−0.5	5.0	7.9	12.8	14.0	16.6	16.7	15.3	7.0	5.0	−0.6	8.3
Yaan	7.1	7.5	14.0	17.2	22.8	23.0	25.0	25.0	23.0	15.5	14.3	7.6	16.8
Sichang	12.9	13.1	15.2	16.2	21.9	20.5	23.2	23.1	21.8	15.4	12.7	10.7	17.2
Yunnan													
Kunming	8.4	12.2	13.4	17.4	20.9	20.0	20.6	21.5	18.8	14.9	12.0	..	..
Tali	9.9	11.5	14.2	16.4	19.7	20.2	20.6	19.8	19.0	15.7	11.3	11.9	15.8
Yuki	12.4	13.1	16.8	18.6	23.5	23.0	23.1	23.4	21.4	18.3	14.8	12.6	18.4
Kweichow													
Kweiyang	7.1	5.9	12.7	15.5	21.6	22.0	24.7	24.6	21.9	13.9	12.8	6.7	15.8
Tuhshan	7.0	5.7	11.2	15.5	21.1	21.6	23.7	24.2	22.0	14.6	13.5	6.9	15.6
Tsunyi	5.8	5.3	12.1	14.9	20.6	21.8	24.9	24.5	21.7	13.5	..	6.4	..
Hupeh													
Wuchang	4.2	5.0	11.7	17.8	22.1	25.4	28.9	28.9	24.5	16.8	11.9	4.2	16.8
Hunan													
Changsha	4.6	5.6	12.0	17.8	22.3	25.6	29.7	29.7	25.2	16.9	12.5	5.1	17.2
Chihkiang	5.6	5.8	12.1	17.3	22.0	25.4	29.2	28.5	24.5	15.8	12.8	6.6	17.1
Changteh	4.1	5.7	12.0	17.8	21.7	25.6	28.6	29.0	24.1	16.6	12.5	4.9	16.9
Chaling	6.2	6.1	13.1	17.9	23.1	24.7	28.7	28.4	25.1	17.8	15.0	7.1	17.8
Kiangsi													
Nanchang	6.2	5.7	12.5	18.4	23.6	25.9	30.8	30.3	26.8	18.4	15.1	7.0	18.4

TABLE 6.—*Continued*

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Kwangtung													
Canton	18.0	12.3	17.7	20.0	25.8	27.1	27.8	28.2	27.6	23.3	20.6	15.4	21.9
Kukong	11.5	9.1	15.8	19.4	25.6	26.2	28.7	28.8	27.4	21.1	18.4	11.8	20.3
Kwangsi													
Kweilin	9.1	8.1	14.1	18.7	25.1	25.7	27.8	28.5	26.1	19.9	17.2	10.3	19.2
Kweiping	14.4	12.6	17.6	20.8	26.5	27.1	28.1	28.1	27.1	23.0	20.3	14.3	21.8
Nanning	14.2	12.3	17.4	20.8	27.0	27.2	27.7	28.2	26.6	22.3	19.8	13.6	21.4
Sankiang	8.4	7.6	13.5	18.0	24.4	25.6	27.4	27.4	28.3	18.0	14.9	8.8	18.5
Fukien													
Mintsing	12.7	9.4	14.4	18.1	24.0	24.8	29.6	29.3	27.4	20.8	17.3	12.3	20.0
Pucheng	8.8	5.3	12.1	16.8	23.2	24.9	29.2	27.8	25.8	17.9	13.9	7.4	17.8
Nanping	10.9	7.5	13.7	17.3	23.7	24.3	28.7	27.5	26.0	19.0	15.9	10.3	18.7
Kienyang	9.9	6.3	12.2	16.9	23.2	24.3	28.2	27.3	25.5	18.3	14.1	7.8	17.8
Taiwan													
Taipei	16.6	14.1	17.1	23.4	24.1	25.3	27.8	28.6	27.4	22.2	17.1	20.5	22.0
Taichung	17.3	14.6	17.9	21.7	25.6	26.1	27.8	28.1	27.7	23.0	21.5	17.8	22.4
Tainan	14.4	16.3	19.0	23.1	26.6	26.9	27.8	28.0	28.0	24.4	21.4	18.7	12.9
Kiangsu													
Nanking	3.1	2.9	10.0	16.7	19.8	23.9	28.4	28.7	24.8	16.4	12.7	4.0	15.9
Shanghai	5.3	3.0	9.4	15.2	18.2	22.3	28.8	29.2	25.5	17.4	13.8	6.4	16.2
Chinkiang	3.3	2.7	9.2	16.4	18.7	23.3	27.7	28.1	24.5	16.4	12.2	4.2	15.5
Soochow	4.5	2.9	9.7	15.6	18.9	23.2	28.9	28.9	25.2	16.4	12.7	5.4	16.0
Chekiang													
Hangchow	4.9	3.9	11.1	16.4	20.3	23.9	30.0	29.2	25.2	16.4	13.0	5.5	16.6
Yutsien	4.5	2.9	10.0	15.2	20.1	23.7	28.8	28.2	24.2	15.4	11.7	4.7	15.8
Anhwei													
Anking	4.3	4.1	10.6	16.8	21.4	25.0	29.4	28.9	25.0	16.7	12.4	4.8	16.6
Hofei	5.2	5.4	11.2	17.5	21.1	24.8	29.2	29.1	24.1	16.4	12.3	5.5	16.7

Source: Central Weather Bureau

Table 7.—Monthly and Annual Precipitation Means, in Mm., 1947

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Liaoning													
Mukden	11.5	0.5	55.0	6.4	95.2	86.1	216.5	268.4	89.6	13.5	16.3	36.8	895.8
Kirin													
Kirin	12.2	4.4	31.0	12.8	20.0	145.2	285.9	112.5	77.6	28.3	22.2	18.7	770.8
Changchun	..	3.8	9.3	9.5	24.8	80.3	255.9	152.5	67.6	41.2	18.5	19.5	..
Jehol													
Chengteh	..	..	19.8	1.7	21.9	90.6	194.9	208.1	81.3	3.5	0.1	9.9	..
Hopei													
Peiping	9.8	12.2	9.3	T	12.3	40.9	194.9	169.4	141.2	0.8	0.0	11.6	602.4
Tientsin	3.6	3.1	7.0	0.9	11.7	43.0	219.3	172.6	89.0	T	0.1	25.4	575.7
Tangku	5.8	1.3	10.1	0.8	6.6	81.9	150.2	160.0	92.5	3.2	T	29.7	542.1
Paoting	3.9	0.9	2.5	0.0	13.6	36.2	81.5	191.6	70.2	1.0	0.6	8.7	410.7
Shantung													
Tsinan	5.2	1.0	14.4	4.4	25.4	88.2	175.0	215.7	95.9	14.1	8.2	20.6	668.1
Tsingtao	22.4	5.3	7.5	18.2	17.8	94.0	383.7	204.8	67.4	2.1	19.4	21.2	863.6
Chahar													
Kalgan	..	..	..	1.0	25.4	45.2	98.8	157.8	117.6	8.6	0.7	11.3	..
Shensi													
Yulin	1.9	2.3	0.0	3.4	7.1	35.4	30.3	79.6	173.6	25.3	T	1.3	360.2
Hwashan	38.1	15.4	11.6	41.4	69.3	93.7	137.1	76.6	93.6	51.7	20.1	32.4	681.0
Kansu													
Lanchow	4.4	T	T	27.7	31.4	32.1	67.6	63.8	67.4	33.5	5.6	0.1	333.6
Wutu	0.9	4.6	20.6	17.1	95.4	27.7	106.7	199.9	106.8	22.0	11.7	2.3	615.7
Tunhwang	T	0.0	1.5	7.0	T	T	44.5	27.4	8.5	0.0	0.5	6.0	95.4
Ansi	0.0	0.0	1.5	8.9	T	3.1	28.9	51.4	9.5	T	0.6	1.7	105.6
Pingliang	6.2	T	0.0	46.9	49.6	57.1	141.3	257.0	94.8	37.6	5.9	1.4	697.9
Ningsia													
Chungning	T	T	T	21.3	2.0	5.1	33.8	91.4	101.3	24.1	T	0.2	279.2
Chungwei	0.0	0.4	0.0	25.6	2.3	16.2	48.1	51.1	111.7	20.9	0.1	T	276.4

Table 7.—*Continued*

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Chinghai													
Sining	1.6	0.0	3.1	38.4	43.5	39.3	59.4	80.7	41.3	29.9	1.5	3.1	341.8
Tulan	6.9	T	T	23.2	42.7	19.0	36.1	23.3	4.0	0.2	..	0.2	..
Szechwan													
Chungking	13.7	4.0	67.8	117.8	242.2	216.5	247.4	84.3	102.8	104.8	55.2	14.4	1270.9
Neikiang	10.0	8.7	33.7	120.5	166.4	212.1	162.7	151.8	76.5	62.1	18.4	14.6	1037.5
Chengtu	3.0	25.1	16.0	27.9	81.5	124.0	488.5	443.7	102.1	53.8	24.6	13.3	1403.5
Loshan	8.1	37.7	66.8	41.6	137.9	157.8	398.6	507.7	189.6	143.7	46.3	34.8	1770.6
Sikang													
Kangting	3.1	3.5	61.6	72.4	98.8	131.5	144.2	136.8	93.2	39.1	10.1	5.4	799.7
Yaan	14.1	25.1	67.9	64.9	112.5	207.2	592.5	745.2	458.0	102.4	76.8	43.7	2510.3
Sichang	0.0	5.4	32.4	58.3	70.0	170.6	317.5	100.6	106.4	110.9	17.3	0.3	989.7
Yunnan													
Kunming	3.0	8.3	47.3	28.4	67.7	133.5	250.3	113.3	129.2	72.6	4.2	..	..
Tali	5.6	16.1	28.6	7.3	71.1	287.6	317.0	160.1	204.1	170.3	T	15.7	1283.5
Yuki	2.8	0.3	23.6	98.1	84.4	222.6	204.8	60.9	157.9	36.1	3.7	13.6	908.8
Kweichow													
Kweiyang	8.1	21.3	49.5	143.6	187.0	157.4	245.8	201.5	194.6	75.1	17.7	18.3	1319.9
Tuhshan	24.9	28.0	112.7	213.9	402.0	251.3	111.3	101.9	187.1	81.6	14.3	22.4	1551.4
Tsunyi	7.8	11.1	17.9	79.0	133.0	71.1	284.2	133.2	98.1	54.9	..	11.0	..
Hupeh													
Wuchang	59.0	11.9	107.4	60.3	216.4	133.2	229.2	180.7	35.9	28.1	32.8	22.6	1117.5
Hunan													
Changsha	76.1	58.9	101.7	110.2	252.1	139.1	60.9	127.6	52.2	27.0	25.2	61.6	1088.6
Chihkiang	31.6	52.7	98.7	126.6	187.8	110.1	21.1	140.3	69.9	41.7	25.1	24.6	930.2
Changteh	50.3	36.3	65.9	85.4	123.7	211.1	98.6	103.6	99.7	37.2	26.1	30.4	968.3
Chaling	92.0	69.0	104.7	147.7	157.7	311.3	67.3	63.2	94.0	22.0	6.8	17.3	1153.0
Kiangsi													
Nanchang	163.1	106.1	173.0	154.3	144.1	275.9	120.9	29.5	24.7	34.3	25.5	57.4	1308.8

TABLE 7.—*Continued*

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Kwantung													
Canton	147.2	30.7	88.9	210.3	259.2	480.0	223.6	259.1	99.7	28.9	26.4	9.7	1863.7
Kukong	158.2	74.6	99.7	231.4	359.0	499.9	83.4	192.0	102.0	25.2	13.1	25.8	1864.3
Kwangsi													
Kweilin	105.3	60.6	131.2	265.4	304.3	351.8	233.1	140.3	306.7	31.1	16.7	11.4	1957.9
Kweiping	178.3	76.4	113.3	207.2	265.6	714.6	264.1	227.3	154.0	7.8	9.7	31.0	2249.3
Nanning	166.2	47.0	63.8	164.9	120.2	537.0	325.6	180.3	221.0	13.5	6.6	36.7	1882.8
Sankiang	22.4	61.4	100.7	136.6	283.0	314.1	260.4	313.7	263.9	56.2	7.5	11.0	1830.9
Fukien													
Mintsing	101.6	93.2	125.5	275.8	343.5	532.5	83.3	149.8	200.4	48.5	39.0	38.9	2032.0
Pucheng	167.9	193.6	136.4	244.4	386.2	608.4	189.2	222.8	101.3	119.0	32.3	62.8	2464.3
Nanping	138.3	126.2	124.6	316.2	444.7	458.2	45.5	162.3	188.4	35.8	13.3	25.3	2078.8
Kienyang	112.6	98.1	100.6	179.6	278.4	312.9	75.8	118.7	168.5	57.1	14.8	40.1	1557.2
Taiwan													
Taipei	109.8	133.3	163.8	311.8	268.4	711.6	353.6	182.8	202.6	420.3	187.8	127.5	3173.3
Taichung	41.8	60.3	139.0	161.1	419.8	1245.4	287.8	33.7	62.2	25.4	18.0	37.7	2532.2
Tainan	37.0	3.3	38.4	47.4	510.0	491.4	562.1	283.0	85.9	57.5	61.6	111.1	2288.7
Kiangsu													
Nanking	124.1	8.9	34.2	11.7	108.8	96.8	194.0	53.9	16.3	18.8	26.6	56.5	750.6
Shanghai	78.9	22.1	42.6	11.3	125.1	142.6	266.2	102.7	86.1	87.1	74.2	98.3	1137.2
Chinkiang	92.4	12.8	28.3	5.9	91.9	105.2	269.6	52.0	21.3	20.1	17.7	54.9	772.1
Soochow	117.1	29.2	41.5	19.6	141.4	170.4	188.3	70.6	27.9	49.0	7.9	82.8	945.6
Chekiang													
Hangchow	138.8	48.2	55.6	55.2	238.9	211.1	154.1	90.2	51.6	111.2	9.8	95.8	1260.5
Yutsien	126.7	40.5	54.5	65.7	277.7	254.5	184.9	165.3	59.0	51.0	2.8	76.3	1358.9
Anhwei													
Anking	87.7	11.9	133.4	108.8	273.9	72.6	221.7	100.0	46.4	62.7	28.9	39.5	1187.5
Hofei	93.9	4.9	65.1	32.4	104.3	140.2	153.3	154.8	42.4	18.7	32.9	31.9	874.5

Source: Central Weather Bureau

Remark: "T" stands for "Trace," indicating precipitation less than 1 mm.

POPULATION

STATISTICAL BACKGROUND

Reliable population figures were unobtainable in ancient China. Historical records show that the first census of China was taken in 1742 during the reign of Emperor Chieng-lung. The total population at that time was roughly estimated at 143,411,559. By 1761, an-

TABLE 8—CHINA'S POPULATION, JUNE, 1948

Administrative District	No. of Households	Population	Male	Female
Kiangsu	7,585,646	36,080,123	18,601,481	17,478,642
Chekiang	4,622,857	19,958,715	10,541,213	9,417,502
Anhwei	3,595,732	22,462,217	11,869,001	10,593,216
Kiangsi	2,517,095	12,506,912	6,490,636	6,016,276
Hupeh	3,751,924	20,975,559	10,946,783	10,028,776
Hunan	4,621,038	25,557,926	13,476,892	12,081,034
Szechwan	8,413,380	47,437,387	24,266,746	23,170,641
Sikang	328,470	1,696,600	851,144	845,456
Hopei	5,160,858	28,719,057	15,438,888	13,280,169
Shantung	7,340,166	38,865,254	19,334,890	19,530,364
Shansi	3,032,232	15,247,059	8,348,598	6,898,461
Honan	5,238,350	29,654,095	15,097,753	14,556,342
Shensi	2,094,660	10,011,201	5,245,452	4,765,749
Kansu	1,278,270	7,090,517	3,696,201	3,394,316
Chinghai	200,539	1,307,719	658,815	648,904
Fukien	2,447,970	11,143,083	5,771,334	5,371,749
Taiwan	1,090,436	6,384,019	3,211,822	3,172,197
Kwangtung	5,551,401	27,209,968	14,409,238	12,800,730
Kwangsi	2,820,388	14,636,337	7,636,084	7,000,253
Yunnan	1,715,333	9,065,921	4,552,461	4,513,460
Kweichow	1,838,780	10,173,750	5,100,983	5,072,767
Liaoning	1,675,832	10,007,204	5,143,519	4,863,685
Antung	546,308	2,992,305	1,650,083	1,342,222
Liaopei	830,962	4,627,841	2,424,180	2,203,661
Kirin	1,189,683	6,465,449	3,473,239	2,992,210
Sungkiang	456,316	2,570,806	1,506,060	1,064,746
Hokiang	332,874	1,841,000	959,500	881,500
Heilungkiang	301,550	2,844,211	1,605,977	1,238,234
Nunkiang	499,082	3,333,409	1,839,547	1,493,862
Hsingan	65,509	327,563	184,026	143,537
Jehol	1,067,182	6,196,974	3,287,177	2,909,797
Chahar	461,680	2,185,774	1,199,999	985,775
Suiyuan	395,586	2,233,226	1,243,767	989,459
Ningsia	125,789	759,002	414,331	344,671
Sinkiang	978,951	4,047,452	2,152,597	1,894,855
Tibet*		1,000,000	650,000	350,000
Nanking	215,564	1,113,972	636,595	477,377
Shanghai	899,955	4,630,385	2,561,236	2,069,149
Peiping	347,879	1,721,546	958,638	762,908
Tientsin	353,950	1,772,840	1,013,359	759,481
Tsingtao	148,307	850,508	466,138	384,370
Chungking	220,399	985,673	558,002	427,671
Canton	202,984	1,128,065	607,932	520,133
Hankow	136,697	721,598	399,617	321,981
Sian	122,297	628,449	384,624	243,825
Mukden	216,007	1,021,057	566,682	454,375
Dairen*	93,419	543,690	358,736	184,954
Harbin*	153,226	760,000	481,917	278,083
TOTAL	87,283,513	463,493,418	242,273,893	221,219,525

SOURCE: Ministry of Interior

other census was taken, placing the total at 200-million. Later in 1790, another attempt was made which fixed the total of China's population at 300-million. In 1835, however, the figure was raised to 400-million.

In 1912, after the founding of the Republic of China, a census was taken of the entire nation, excepting three provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Anhwei where a census was taken in 1908. The count was placed at 357,430,879 which, plus the population figures of the three provinces obtained from the 1908 census, made the national total of 404,736,191. In 1928, following the establishment of the National Government in Nanking, the Ministry of Interior conducted an all-China census, which was completed two years later. The maximum was then established at 474,787,386. The last prewar census was taken in 1936 when preparations for the convocation of the National Assembly called for complete statistics of China's population. The total was placed at that time at 461,363,646.

After V-J Day, the government felt the urgent need of again ascertaining the number of people as a basis for reconstruction plans. The Ministry of Interior asked various cities and provinces to file population figures every six months on the basis of house-to-house registration by different local administrative units of *hsiang, pao* and *chai*. For those localities where census figures were unobtainable, the former statistics were adopted. For the first half of 1947, the total set by the Ministry was 461,006,285 and for the second half, 462,798,093, indicating an increase of 1,791,808. The following shows the population of various administrative districts in June, 1948.

Geographical Distribution

China has one-fifth of the world's population. But because of the vastness of her territory, the density of her population is low. According to statistics compiled by the Ministry of Interior for the first half of 1947, the density is 47.35 persons per sq. km.

As in many other countries, the geographical distribution of her people is determined by the topographical features of the land, the climate, and the nature of the soil. Generally speaking, her most densely populated areas, where agriculture is highly developed, lie below 1,500 feet above sea level. Such areas include the north China plain, the Yangtze and Hwai rivers plain, the Two Lakes basin, the Pearl river estuary, and the Sungari and Liao rivers plain.

Next in population density are the tableland regions, ranging in altitude from 1,500 to 3,000 feet above sea level, where the cultivation of agricultural products is easy. Included in this group are the Kweisui plain, the Yellow river bend plain, the Ningsia plain, the corroded highlands on the southeastern coast and in the northwest, and the mountainous areas in both Yunnan and Kweichow provinces.

Third come those highlands which are from 3,000 to 6,000 feet above sea level, such as the Mongolian plateau, the Ordos plateau, the Sinkiang plateau, where the soil is not fertile and rainfall is scarce. Such regions are more suitable for raising animals than agricultural cultivation.

The most thinly populated places in China are the mountainous terrains above 6,000 feet above sea level. They are found in Sikang, Tibet, and many parts of Chinghai where the topography is rough and the cold is severe. These regions are too remote for migration and cannot support a big population. Such areas must first be developed to a certain extent before any increase of population is possible.

The table on page 19 shows the density of population in various administrative districts in China.

I. Distribution By Sex

Males preponderate in the sex ratio of the Chinese population. The traditional premium in China on male offsprings as a source of manpower in a land of agricultural economy tends to offer a partial explanation of this phenomenon, as in case of national calamities the males have more chances to survive than the females. In addition, physical superiority is another explanation for such a preponderance. Usually, the ratio can be greatly upset by the incidences of war, famine, and migration.

The sex ratio of the Chinese population in the first half of 1947 was 110.10 percent to every 100 females, and 109.52 percent in the second half of the same year. The sex ratios of the population of Shanghai, Nanking, Peiping, Hankow and Canton in the first half of 1947 were, respectively, 127.83%, 142.29%, 136.67%, 113.01% and 110.88% to every 100 females, and in the second half of 1947 were, respectively, 126.49%, 136.14%, 132.04%, 113.01% and 109.35%.

Table 9.—Population Density

Administrative District	Population per sq. km.
Kiangsu	332.84
Chekiang	194.28
Anhwei	154.28
Kiangsi	73.55
Hupeh	112.95
Hunan	127.81
Szechwan	155.31
Sikang	3.66
Hopei	202.41
Shantung	263.55
Shansi	96.06
Honan	172.42
Shensi	50.57
Kansu	17.62
Chinghai	2.02
Fukien	94.09
Taiwan	170.54
Kwangtung	127.34
Kwangsi	66.70
Yunnan	21.81
Kweichow	61.48
Liaoning	148.89
Antung	49.89
Liaopei	30.80
Kirin	78.98
Sungkiang	56.13
Hokiang	15.66
Heilungkiang	12.93
Nunkiang	35.95
Hsingan	1.27
Jehol	33.94
Chahar	7.44
Suiyuan	6.57
Ningsia	3.31
Sinkiang	2.34
Tibet	0.82
Nanking	1,331.95
Shanghai	4,314.03
Peiping	2,266.37
Tientsin	9,064.07
Tsingtao	1,005.07
Chungking	3,344.82
Hankow	5,608.79
Canton	5,040.19
Sian	2,519.42
Mukden	5,133.71
Dairen	3,654.81
Harbin	817.64
Total	47.35

Source: Ministry of Interior.

In the interior provinces of Shansi, Honan and Kansu the sex ratios for the first half of 1947 were, respectively, 120.80%, 105.72% and 107.88% to every 100 females, while in the second half of 1947 the ratios were, respectively, 120.63%, 103.84% and 108.61%.

The ratio of Shantung's population for first and second half of 1947 were 98.58% and 98.70%, respectively, for every 100 females.

2. Distribution by Age

Distribution of population by age is determined by the fluctuations of birth-rate and death-rate. When the birth-rate and the death-rate are both high, the young comprise a higher percentage of the population than the old. On the other hand, if the birth-rate and death-rate are both low, the old comprise a higher percentage.

Both immigration and emigration affect the distribution by age. If there are more emigrants, a decrease of middle-aged people in the population will follow. By the same principle, an increase in the number of immigrants means an increase of the middle-aged population. Since China is an agricultural country, and her rural inhabitants constitute 72 percent of her total population, the fluctuation of migration does not affect her distribution of population by age to any noticeable extent. However, both China's birth-rate and death-rate are high. For that reason, the young comprise a higher percentage of the population than the old.

But the age figures in Chinese population statistics are often inaccurate. The most common difficulty results from the method of calculating birthdays. According to the obsolete Lunar system of age calculation, a child is one year old on the day of its birth. It is two years old on its first New Year's day, even if it has been born only the day before. Since the adoption of the Solar calendar, most people began to deduct one year from their age.

3. Registration of Marriages

The percentage of married people in China's population is higher than in most western countries. There are several reasons for this. First, marriageable age groups in China occupy a high percentage of the population total. Second, the patriarchal family system still observed in the country stresses the importance of marriage and the rearing of offspring. In the eyes of old-fashioned people, the working power of a family is strengthened by the marriage of male members, as Chinese women are virtually head administrators of their families. Third, in the rural areas, women are economically dependent on men. It is therefore seldom that they remain unmarried. Fourth, due to

ethical teaching and traditional practices, divorces are infrequent in China.

In the metropolitan city of Shanghai, which had a population of 3,766,111 according to the December, 1947 census, 1,826,939 out of 2,699,665 persons who were over 15 years of age were married. Altogether 651,221 remained single, 220,034 were widowed, and 1,474 were divorced. In the interior province of Shansi, which had a population of 15,025,259 in the same period, 8,101,747 out of 10,334,811 persons above 15 years of age were married, while 2,102,091 were single, 130,317 widowed, and 656 divorced.

4. Educational Standard

There was no accurate estimate of China's illiteracy in the past. A recent survey made by the Ministry of Interior in the larger cities placed it at more than 30 percent.

In Shanghai, 1,614,533 out of a total population of 3,766,111 (Dec., 1947) were illiterate, and those who had received education from private tutors, primary, secondary or higher educational institutions totalled 1,661,715. In Peiping, 646,152 out of a population of 1,682,206 were illiterate, while 890,635 had received varying degrees of education. In Nanking, 324,104 out of 1,103,538 persons were illiterate, while 644,161 were literate. Of Hankow's 749,952 population, 247,751 were illiterate and 412,974 were literate.

In the interior province of Shansi, 9,531,440 out of a total population of 15,025,259 were illiterate, while 3,533,432 were literate. In Hupeh, 13,103,190 out of 20,580,608 were illiterate, while 3,533,432 were literate.

5. Economic Conditions

In a 1947 study of the vocations pursued by people over 12 years of age in 12 typical provinces and cities, the Ministry of Interior found that while in the provinces the majority worked on farms, in the cities more people were engaged in commercial and industrial enterprises than in agricultural undertakings.

In Hupeh province (population: 20,580,608, Dec., 1947), 8,779,653 out of 15,246,532 persons over 12 years of age worked on farms, while 1,192,584 persons engaged in industries; 918,951 in commerce; 128,992 in communications enterprises; 1,495,594 in social service; 13,306 in mining; 707,413 in other professions, and 2,010,039 were unemployed.

In Shanghai (population: 3,766,111, Dec., 1947), out of a total of 2,925,247 persons over 12 years of age, only 121,017 were engaged in agricultural enterprises as against 578,160 in commerce; 546,730 in industries; 176,217 in communications and transportation undertakings; 61,024 in civil service; 151,350 in social service, and 132,424 in other professions. The unemployed numbered 1,158,325.

6. Vital Statistics

Despite the lack of complete vital statistics of the Chinese population in the past, efforts made by health authorities in various provinces and cities in recent years in gathering such data have brought substantial results. The vital statistics of 22 districts for the second quarter of 1947 are shown on page 21.

OVERSEAS CHINESE

Chinese migration into the South Seas began some 2,000 years ago when Chin Shih Huang Ti made present Indo-China a part of the Chinese Empire. Chinese emigrants went in large numbers to the South Sea countries after the Sung dynasty. The Ching dynasty banned migration to overseas countries. Nevertheless, groups, mostly from Kwangtung and Fukien, moved surreptitiously to foreign countries. Though they have contributed unfailingly to economic developments in their places of residence, they were subject to wholesale massacre and exploitation in a number of countries and colonies.

Overseas Chinese have maintained contact with their mother country. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, in recognition of the important part they played in the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, called them the "Mother of the Revolution." During the war with Japan, those residing abroad shared in the nation's struggle against aggression. The Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan was set up for the promotion of their welfare.

According to a report prepared by the commission on June 2, 1948, there were 9,450,143 Chinese residing in various foreign countries as shown in Table 11 on pages 22 and 23.

Postwar Relief

As a part of its postwar relief and rehabilitation program, the government repatriated 31,012 Chinese by the end of March, 1948. About 18,000 others were benefited by the plan. In addition, 118,424 overseas Chinese registered during 1947 with the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission for repatriation to their homes in different countries at their own expense. Overseas Chinese mechanics from the South Seas who rendered invaluable service in wartime transportation received an award of US$200 each from the government. Up to the end of March, 1948, 1,491 such mechanics had been sent back.

Table 10.—Births and Deaths in 22 Districts Second Quarter, 1947

District	Population	Births	Deaths
Taiwan	6,384,091	56,806	29,664
Nanking	1,084,995	2,163	2,402
Shanghai	4,300,630	22,954	8,083
Peiping	1,603,324	5,530	4,938
Tsingtao	787,722	2,568	1,732
Chungking	1,000,101	1,258	1,035
Mukden	1,120,918	1,215	885
Sian	590,685	932	470
Hankow	437,522	1,103	938
Nanchang	258,692	733	377
Kanting	25,934	122	79
Tsinan	574,781	1,684	1,039
Taiyuan	304,550	1,354	702
Lanchow	203,722	258	251
Foochow	328,434	138	93
Amoy	138,032	47	61
Kunming	293,961	335	181
Anshan	165,988	301	246
Yinkow	158,587	159	219
Chinchow	148,006	184	163
Paotow	62,727	250	229
Kweisui	101,306	585	444

Source: Ministry of Interior

Educational Development

By the end of 1947, the overseas Chinese had 3,462 schools for the education of their children, including 2 institutions of higher learning, 156 middle schools, 8 normal schools, 7 vocational schools, 2,696 primary schools, 94 night schools, and 499 other schools. In addition, there were more than 300 cultural organizations engaged in the publication of magazines and newspapers.

To relieve the shortage of teachers in their schools, the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission maintained a program for the encouragement of teachers serving abroad. By the end of 1947, a total of 372 teachers had accepted government offers to teach abroad. The commission also set up a correspondence school for overseas students, who numbered 1,004 in the first term of 1947, and 993 in the second.

As many overseas Chinese send their children back to China to finish their education, the commission works as a guiding agency and arranges for admission of such youths to different schools. The scholarships jointly offered to these students by the Ministry of Education and the commission have encouraged many to study in their mother country.

News on China has been broadcast regularly to overseas Chinese in both the national spoken language and in the Cantonese and Amoy dialects. Three magazines dealing with overseas affairs and their problems also serve as links with the Chinese living outside the country.

Economic Advancement

Overseas Chinese financial enterprises suffered a great setback during World War II. For their recovery, the government, besides encouraging investments in China by those abroad, has loaned them US$50-million at a low interest rate. Many Chinese residing in the Philippine Islands, British Malaya, Dutch East Indies, Burma, Siam, and Indo-China, have been enabled to start their businesses again through these loans.

Remittances from overseas Chinese play an important part in making up for China's foreign exchange deficiency. The

fluctuations in the amount of overseas remittances received in China are generally determined by political and economic situations in China and abroad.

Between 1938 and June, 1947, the following remittances were received: £12,264,526.00 from London; HK$5,259,740.72 from Hongkong; 56,711,029.57 Malayan dollars from British Malaya; 7,078,548.72 Burmese rupees from Burma; 7,836,881.27

Table 11.—Distribution of Overseas Chinese (Up to June, 1948)

Locality	No. of Overseas Chinese	Year
Asia		
Indo-China	538,531	1940
Burma	193,594	1937
Siam	3,000,000	1948
British Malaya	2,608,975	1947
Sarawak	86,000	1936
British North Borneo	68,034	1938
Dutch East Indies	1,344,809	1937
Philippine Islands	117,463	1941
Portuguese Timor	3,500	1938
Hongkong	923,584	1937
Macao	157,175	
India	17,314	1944
Ceylon	1,000	1937
Afghanistan	24	1947
Turkey	7,000	1930
Mecca	6,100	1938
Japan	29,461	1947
Korea	12,793	1947
Total	9,115,357	
Americas		
U. S. A.	80,613	1943
Canada	46,000	1937
Mexico	12,500	1943
Guatemala	745	1945
Salvador	167	1944
Nicaragua	1,500	1945
Costa Rica	600	1945
Honduras	400	1944
Panama	2,000	1945
Cuba	32,000	1942
Dominican Republic	362	1945
Haiti	40	1945
British Trinidad	5,000	1938
British Jamaica	8,000	1945
Dutch Curacao	700	1945
Peru	10,915	1940
Chile	1,500	1945
Argentina	200	1945
Brazil	592	1940
Uruguay	55	1945
Colombia	550	1943
Venezuela	1,500	1941
Ecuador	800	1939
Guiana	2,300	1930
Total	209,039	

Table 11.—*Continued*

Locality	No. of Overseas Chinese	Year
Europe		
Great Britain	2,546	1941
U. S. S. R.	29,620	1940
Denmark	900	1940
Switzerland	41	1940
Spain	44	1940
Germany	300	1944
Italy	350	1948
Rumania	16	1940
France	17,000	1948
Portugal	73	1948
Luxemburg	52	1920
Czechoslovakia	250	1932
Belgium	95	1947
Netherlands	2,017	1937
Poland	88	1947
Hungary	49	1929
Yugoslavia	37	1929
Greece	2	1948
Austria	98	1930
Finland	11	1918
Norway	3	1947
Bulgaria	7	1932
Sweden	10	1948
Turkey	13	1948
Total	53,622	
Oceania		
Australia	10,439	1947
New Zealand	3,400	1944
Hawaiian Islands	29,237	1941
Fiji Islands	2,000	1940
Samoa Islands	2,198	1940
Nauru Islands	5,000	1940
Tahiti Islands	5,000	1930
Total	57,274	
Africa		
Egypt	22	1948
South Africa	4,000	1937
East Africa	500	1944
Islands in Indian Ocean	10,329	1939
Total	14,851	
Grand Total	9,450,143	

Source: Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission

pesos from the Philippines; 7,765,147.74 guilders from the Netherlands East Indies; 3,879,078.00 piasters from Indo-China; 5,146,826.00 bahts from Siam, and US$70,459,483.88 from New York.

Participation in the Constitutional Government

The Overseas Chinese took part in the election of delegates to the National Assembly and of members to the Legislative

Yuan and the Control Yuan. However, because, of difficulties and restrictions imposed by some of the countries in which they reside, these overseas elections were only partially successful. The following shows the election results:

(1) Election of delegates to the National Assembly—The Constitution provides 65 seats in the National Assembly for overseas delegates to be elected from 41 electoral districts. However, only 22 delegates were successfully elected from 17 electoral districts in the United States, Canada, Hawaiian Islands, Central and South America, West Indies, Tahiti, Macao, Korea, India, Europe and Africa. The 23 electoral districts in the Philippines, Hongkong, Japan, Indo-China, Burma, Siam, Malaya, Borneo, and Dutch East Indies sent no delegates because of local difficulties. Ballots had been cast for the election of one delegate from the district of Australia but unforeseen difficulties arose and as a result no delegate was sent.

(2) Election of Legislative Yuan members—A total of 19 Legislative Yuan members were to be elected from 15 electoral districts abroad. Of the number, three were duly elected from the three districts of Canada, Central and South America, and Europe. The remaining districts were unable to produce the allocated number of delegates on account of political differences or local difficulties.

(3) Election of Control Yuan members—A total of eight members were to be elected from districts abroad. One Control Yuan member was duly elected from the district of the United States. The election in other districts were either postponed or called off because of local difficulties.

RELIGION

Ancestor-Worship

The spiritual life of the ancient Chinese, like that of all other ancient peoples, started with deification and worship of all the important phenomena of nature. There were the Gods of Rain, Wind, and Rivers; Lord of Thunder; God or Goddess of Marriage; Spirit of Wayside; God of Kitchen; Divine Archer; and a host of other divinities. Above them was a supreme god, Shang Ti or Tien, who was the Lord of All Gods and Men. Hou Tu, the Lord of Earth, was the counterpart of Shang Ti. This practice of worshipping all phenomena of nature prevailed before the era of Chou.

The divine and the human were not clearly differentiated. All of the dead became deities and were duly worshipped by their descendants. Many take this ancestor-worship as a religion. But there has been no code or ethical dogma in ancestor-worship. Even the ritual is limited to sacrifices made periodically during festivals and death and birth anniversaries. Enthusiastic worshippers may pay homage at the beginning and in the middle of the month.

The practice started, in the opinion of many sociologists, as an extension of filial piety, but gradually it degenerated into a superstitious routine, based on the belief that such worship would bring goodwill and protection from the dead.

Confucianism

Confucianism is a western name, but the Chinese speak of *Kung Chiao*, Confucian Teaching, or *Ju Chiao*, the Teaching of the Learned, which is based on teachings of Confucius or Kung Chiu (551-479 B.C.). Strictly speaking, Confucianism is not a religion as it has no ritual that characterizes a religion. It is not possible to derive any spiritual comfort from the Teaching of the Learned as from other religious beliefs. It is a philosophy, a system of ethics that directs the human mode of living. The seasonal sacrifices to Confucius are customs obtained from the ancestor-worship since the erection of temples and the holding of ceremonies in honor of ancestors antedated Confucius.

Confucianism, however, has been and is still influencing the Chinese way of life. The teachings and philosophy of Confucius and his followers are embodied in the Four Books and Five Classics. The Four Books are the Analects, sayings of Confucius collected by his disciples; the *Great Learning*, a treatise written by his disciple Tseng Tze; the *Doctrine of the Mean*, by his grandson, Tze Ssu; and the works of *Mencius*, disciple of Tze Ssu. The Five Classics are the *Yi Ching* or Book of Changes, the *Shu Ching* or Book of History, the *Shih Ching* or the Collection of Poetry, the *Li Chi* or Book of Rites, and the *Chun Chiu* or Spring and Autumn.

On May 31, 1934, the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang designated August 27, the birthday of Confucius, as a national holiday, and later the day was also designated as Teacher's Day commemorating the greatest teacher in Chinese history. Respect paid to Confucius is not that paid to a prophet or living god but to a great sage whose teachings promote peace and good order in society and encourage moral living by the individual.

Taoism

Taoism began as a philosophy, but later developed into a religion. As a philosophy it is traced to Lao Tze, born in 604 B.C. near the modern city of Kweiteh in eastern Honan. He was a profound thinker, a political philosopher of keen insight and a great ethical teacher. His doctrine of the right way and "Do Nothing" ruled out the idea of forming a religion and establishing himself as a saint, for this would be contrary to his teachings. Yet, seven centuries after his death, his teachings degenerated into a ritual embodying a polytheistic hodgepodge of witchcraft and demonology. And his treatise, the *Tao Te Ching*, the Book of Way and Virtue, became the bible of Taoists.

Chang Liang, who played a leading part in the establishment of the Han dynasty, is credited with being one of the first patriarchs of the Taoists and his descendant in the eighth generation (A.D. 34), Chang Tao-ling, was made the first Taoist pope. Since then his descendants have been the heads of the sect. In A.D. 423, the emperor conferred upon the Taoist pope of that day and his successors the title of Tien Shih or Heavenly Preceptor. In A.D. 1016 the pope was granted a large domain in Kiangsi. The White Deer Grotto on the Dragon-Tiger mountain, where Chang Tao-ling discovered the elixir of immortality and ascended to Heaven after living to be 123 years of age, still serves as the papal seat.

Priests of Taoism are known as Tao Shih. They have their own temples, rituals and bible. They are allowed to marry. Some are anchorites who through meditation and ascetic practices seek immortality. Others live as priests.

Buddhism

Buddhism in China, introduced from India during the first century, bears little resemblance to the religion in its purer forms. A number of native legends, traditions, rites and deities have been added to Buddhism to give it a strong Chinese flavor.

Buddhism first came to China in A.D. 61, when Han Ming Ti dispatched 18 ambassadors to the Siyu (Western Territory) to seek instruction in Buddhism. After six years, they returned from Khotan with two Buddhist monks, a number of Hinayana Sutras and Buddha statues. The emperor built for them the first Buddhist temple, the Pai-ma-ssu (White Horse Temple, as the texts were brought to China on a white horse) in Loyang. The temple, after repeated repairs, still stands. Seventy years later, two other monks brought Mahayana Buddhism to China.

The work of translating the sutras into Chinese was in its prime in the 700 years after the Han dynasty. The most famous ones include Kumarajiva of the fourth century and Hsuan-chuang and I-ching of the tenth century. By the end of the fifth century the carving of Buddha statues on rocks became very popular and prevalent in China and influenced to a considerable extent the future development of Chinese fine arts.

Altogether ten schools of Buddhism were established between the 4th and 7th centuries in China, each with its own way of training disciples in its principal sutras. They included the Tse-en or Dharmalaksana school, the Prajnaparamita or Three Sutras school, the Tien-tai school, the Hsien-shou school, the Pure Land school, the Zen school, the Mantra school, the Satyasiddihi school, the Chu-she school and the Nan-shan school. Of these the most influential was the Zen school. While it is difficult to estimate how many are believers, Buddhist followers who were members of the Chinese Buddhist Society numbered 4,620,000 in 1947.

Chinese Buddhist scholars generally go to Tibet and Ceylon for advanced studies. The Tibetan school's philosophy and training and the Ceylon school's strict discipline are sought by Chinese Buddhists to reinforce their movement. In 1936, the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan decided to grant scholarships to monks from various provinces to study in Tibet and for Tibetan lamas to study in other parts of China. In 1937 the Tibetan scholar Hsi-jao-chia-tso was invited by the National Government to deliver a series of lectures at five national universities. In November, 1939, a Chinese Buddhist Goodwill Mission headed by Abbot Tai Hsu was sent to the South Seas. After visiting centers of Buddhist interest and worship in Burma, Malaya, Ceylon, and India, and exchanging views with local Buddhists for the promotion of a closer fellowship between the followers in China and in those lands, the party returned to Chungking in May, 1940.

During the war years, Chinese Buddhists were remarkably active in war relief. Free schools, clinics and orphanages were organized in many temples. During

the Battle of Shanghai and the bombings of Chungking monks served as stretcher-bearers and took part in first aid and relief work.

As a means to promote the Chinese Buddhist movement, the national convention of the Chinese Buddhist Society, held in Nanking on May 28, 1947, and attended by more than 70 delegates including those from Taiwan, the Northeast, Tibet, and Sinkiang, decided on the following:

(1) The education of Chinese Buddhists and the spread of Buddhist doctrine; (2) the improvement of the Buddhist ecclesiastical system and strict enforcement of the Buddhist religious code; (3) the introduction of self-supporting projects for Buddhist farmers and laborers, and (4) the realization of public welfare and social relief programs.

Lamaism

Lamaism is a form of Buddhism believed chiefly by peoples of Tibet and Mongolia and is a mixture of Buddhism and Shamanistic practices. Up to the seventh century the people of Tibet had a primitive religion consisting chiefly of witchcraft, a form of Shamanism. About the year A.D. 630 Buddhism was introduced by a man named Shrong-tsan-sgampo. Its mixture with the native Shamanism resulted in the present-day Lamaism. The lamas have 108 sacred scriptures and numerous tracts of lesser importance. These include historical and philosophical treatises and biographies of Buddhist sages.

Lamaism was formerly dominated by the Dukpas or Red Caps. In the Ming dynasty, a saint born in Sining named Tsongkapa was dissatisfied with the magic and pagan practices carried out by the lamas, so he effected a reform forbidding necromancy and marriage among lamas. A schism followed. The result was the formation of the Celupas or Yellow Caps, now predominating. Tsongkapa died in 1478 and his body was preserved in the monastery of Gandin not far from Lhasa.

Lamaism has a paradise, but it is not this place that the Tibetan and Mongol believers so earnestly seek. Their chief hope is to be reincarnated in a higher state. This reincarnation is the most important feature of Lamaism. After the death of a Hutukhtu, the Living Buddha, his spirit is said to reappear in the person of some boy born at that time and thus come forth re-embodied. A number of candidates are chosen and are confronted with an array of articles among which one or two were used by the deceased. The one who picks them out without difficulty is his reincarnation and becomes the new Living Buddha. It is by this means that the trinity of the lama saints—the Dalai and Panchan Lamas and the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu—are chosen. The last Djebtsung Damba, who revolted against Chinese rule at the beginning of the Republic, died in 1924, and no reincarnation took place.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet, and next to him is the Panchan Lama, although Panchan is usually considered worthy of more veneration than the other, as his office is less contaminated by worldly cares. Directly under the Dalai Lama are three great monasteries in and around Lhasa—the Djerpung Monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera Monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas and the Gandin Monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Among the three the Djerpung is the largest, but the Gandin is most influential as the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai and Panchan Lamas in rank. The present Dalai Lama, the 14th in the line, was found in Chinghai and enthroned in February, 1940. The 9th Panchan Lama died in November, 1937. Three candidates have been found but it has not yet been possible to decide which one is the reincarnation of the Panchan Lama.

In Mongolia, Lamaism began to flourish at the time of Kublai Khan who for political reasons took this religion under his protection. Likewise the Ming and Ching dynasties utilized it to achieve similar ends and exalted its system of worship.

Of the Living Buddhas, the most important are the Changchia Hutukhtu with his headquarters in Peiping, Galdan Siretu Hutukhtu, Minchur Hutukhtu at Kumbun, Chilung Hutukhtu in Tibet, Namuka Hutukhtu at Sining, Achia Hutukhtu at Sining, Lakuo Hutukhtu in Suiyuan, and Tsahantarkhan Hutukhtu in Jehol. Under the Hutuktus are Jassak Da Lamas and Jassak Lamas (Grand Princes and Princes of the Church), Kan Pu (Abbots), Da Lamas (Priors), Fu Da Lamas (Vice - Priors), Hsien - san Lamas (Higher Grade Clergy), Tu Mu Chi (Stewards of Lamaseries), Ke Sze Kuei (Preceptors who conduct the choral services) Ke Lung (Priests of the First Order), Pan Ti (Priests of the Second Order), and Sha Pi (Novices).

Mohammedanism

According to a 1938 estimate, followers of Islam in China numbered 48,104,240. A recent estimate, however, placed the

figure at 50-million, approximately one-ninth of the total Chinese population. The Chinese Muslims are mainly distributed in Yunnan, Honan, Hopei, Shantung and the provinces in the northwest.

The Islamic history records that Mohammedanism made its advent in China in A.D. 651, when the governments of the Muslim nations began to pay tribute to the Tang Emperor. Saad Abu Wakkas first came to China from the south by sea and founded the Huai Sheng Mosque in Canton, the first one in China. Later Muslims came by the overland route through Persia and Afghanistan into Sinkiang and other parts of China. In A.D. 755, the Caliph Abu Grafar sent an expedition of 4,000 Arabian soldiers to China at the request of the Chinese government to help subdue a rebellion and rendered meritorious service. These men settled in China and many present-day Chinese Muslims are their descendants.

The Chinese Islamic Association, known as the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation before 1943, is an overall Muslim organization devoted to the dual tasks of advancing Islamic education and national reconstruction. In February, 1939, upon the petition of the association, the National Government decided to make the study of Islamic culture a regular feature in the curricula of Chinese universities. Mohammed Ma Kin, Abudorahaman Na Chung and Badroden Hai Wei-liang served as the first lecturers. There are always a number of Chinese students in Azhar University in Egypt with scholarships granted by King Farouk and subsidies given by the Chinese Ministry of Education. In addition, the association has set up 20 middle schools and more than 200 primary schools in different parts of the country.

In January, 1938, the association dispatched a Chinese Muslim Goodwill Mission to visit the Near and Middle East nations. They reached Mecca in time for the Hadj in February during which they met one million representatives from the Muslim world. They also visited Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Iran, Turkey, and India, furthering Chinese relations with all the Muslim nations and peoples. Another mission went to the South Seas in December, 1939, and visited Malaya, India, Arabia, and Iran.

In 1947, 40 Chinese Muslims attended the Hadj. According to the report of the Chinese Islamic Association, more than 2,000 people applied for permission to join the pilgrimage. Of this number, half of the applications came from Sinkiang province alone. In the beginning of August, 1948, 200 Chinese Muslims, mostly from the northwestern provinces of Sinkiang, Kansu and Sikang, were scheduled to leave for Mecca for the annual Hadj.

Showing their staunch support of constitutionalism in China, the Chinese Muslim set up in October, 1946, an Association for the Promotion and Realization of Constitutionalism.

The Catholic Church

During the Sino-Japanese war, Catholic missionaries rendered invaluable service in the relief of refugees and in carrying on other welfare activities. The end of the war found the work of many Catholic parishes and institutions disrupted, their members dispersed and key buildings destroyed.

Despite war difficulties, the Catholic Church in China showed remarkable endurance and growth during the ten-year period from June 30, 1936 to June 30, 1946. The Catholic population in China totalled 2,934,175 in 1936 as against 3,279,813 in 1946. In 1936 there were 4,552 priests, 1,263 brothers, and 5,746 sisters. In 1946, there were 5,442 priests; 1,304 brothers, and 6,456 sisters. In addition, there were 983 senior seminarians (Chinese youths preparing for the priesthood) in 1936, as against 1,214 in 1946, and 5,992 junior seminarians in 1936, as against 4,143 in 1946.

At Christmas, 1945, Pope Pius XII announced that the Most Rev. Thomas Tien, S.V.D., Chinese bishop and native of Shantung, would be among the prelates elevated to the Sacred College of Cardinals, the 70-member "senate" of the Catholic Church. This is the body that elects the Pope, usually chosen from among its members.

His Eminence Cardinal Tien was consecrated in St. Peter's, Rome, on February 18, 1946. He thus became not only the first Chinese Cardinal but the first of that rank in the Far East. He traveled to Rome through the United States, flying from New York with His Eminence Cardinal Spellman. Journeying through Europe and America on his way back, China's first Cardinal was hailed with enthusiasm by leaders and multitudes of many nations. On May 10, 1946, he was named Archbishop of Peiping, the oldest and largest Catholic diocese in China.

On April 11, 1946, an official announcement was made that the Pope was establishing the hierarchy in China, marking another great event in history of Catholicism. Until then, the 138 ecclesiastical divisions in China had been headed by

vicars and apostolic prefects acting as delegates. This is the system universally followed where the Church has not yet reached an advanced state of development. The change to hierarchy signified that the Church in China had reached its maturity.

In 1946, by the establishment of an Internunciature Apostolic in Nanking, diplomatic relations between the Government of China and the Holy See were placed on a reciprocal and permanent basis. The Chinese Government established a legation at the Vatican in 1943 with Dr. Cheoukang Sié as minister. In 1946, Dr. John C. H. Wu, member of the Legislative Yuan and a Catholic convert since 1937, was appointed Chinese minister to the Holy See to succeed Dr. Sié, while Archbishop Anthony Riberi was named Papal Internuncio to China. Dr. Sié again became Chinese Minister to the Vatican in 1949.

Communist Persecution

After the cessation of World War II, the Catholic Church in China faced new persecutions, this time from the communists. The hostility to religion shown by the communists in the late twenties and early thirties was renewed after a brief interval during the war. Early in 1946, with quickening tempo, the Chinese Communists waged an anti-religious offensive, imprisoning, torturing or executing priests and confiscating churches, school buildings and hospitals on absurd charges and fantastic pretexts. The offensive, which began in north China, had spread into central China by 1948, showing a ruthless move planned by the central command of the Chinese Communists.

The list of known Catholic missionaries killed by the communists between V-J Day and March, 1948, totalled 60, of whom 45 were Chinese. Thirty other missionaries, of whom 21 were Chinese, died in prison or after their release. The chain of death stretched as far as Kiamusse in the northeast to Kiangsu in the south. The two most horrible massacres were committed in Siwantze (Chungli), Chahar province, in December, 1946, and in the Trappist monastery of Yangkiaping, 160 kms. west of Peiping, in the summer and fall of 1947. The slaughter in Siwantze, which was 90 percent Catholic, earned the tragic name of "Little Lidice." At Yangkiaping, 31 of 75 Trappist monks were killed by the communists.

Welfare Work

The Chinese Catholic Medical Service, formed in Chungking at the suggestion of Archbishop Paul Yu-pin during the war, continued to function until early 1946. Funds contributed by the Catholic organization in the U. S. known as the War Relief Services were distributed to orphanages and dispensaries in Free China. In July, 1946, the Catholic Welfare Committee was established in Shanghai as a central agency to serve the 288 hospitals, 866 dispensaries and 320 orphanages conducted by the Catholic Church in China. It worked in coordination with other relief agencies through its eight regional directors stationed from Peiping to Canton.

Its other welfare work includes the training of child welfare personnel through cooperation with the Aurora College for Women in Shanghai and the operating of a mobile clinic for children also in Shanghai.

There are eight leper hospitals in China conducted by Catholic missions. One of these is the leprosarium of Chaotung, Yunnan, which the provincial authorities asked the Catholic Church to take over at the beginning of 1948.

Educational Work

With many dioceses either occupied by the communists or located in war zones, complete statistics of Catholic educational activities are not available. Returns from 65 percent of China's dioceses show that 776 primary schools and 155 middle schools were under Catholic auspices in 1948. The total number of students of these schools was 220,000. About 76 percent of the primary school students and 85 percent of the middle school students were non-Christians.

With the approval of the government, the three Catholic institutions of university standing, all located in occupied China, remained open throughout the war. The faculty members of Aurora University, Shanghai, won commendation from the government for their efforts in hiding and preserving valuable scientific equipment for the Academia Sinica during the war. Fu Jen, the Catholic University of Peiping, once was the largest private university in China, with an enrollment of 3,500.

Other Cultural Activities

Despite postwar disturbances, Catholic activities in the field of writing, publishing and broadcasting were resumed with new vigor. The heaviest blow to their religious and educational publication work, however, was the loss to the Chinese Communists of the Catholic printing press in Sienhsien, Hopei, in 1946.

The *Yi Shih Pao,* the Catholic daily, which moved to Hankow and Chungking during the war, resumed publication after V-J Day. In 1946, it set up five separate editions in Nanking, Peiping, Shanghai, Sian and Chungking.

In the beginning of 1948, the Catholic Central Bureau was established in Shanghai as a service agency. It published *The China Missionary,* a review of Catholic missions in China and also issued news through its *Hua Ming News Service.*

The Protestant Church

For over a century, the Protestant Church has steadily expanded its work in China. After 1927, the leadership previously held by foreign missionaries largely passed over to Chinese Christians. From 1927 to 1937 there was a remarkable progress throughout the country. During the Sino-Japanese war, the Chinese Christians made considerable contributions to the nation's war effort and civilian relief. Since the end of the war the Protestant Church has been engaged in the unprecedented task of reconstruction and rehabilitation.

The Forward Movement

The National Christian Council launched a nationwide "All for Christ" Forward Movement in December, 1946. It has the following seven lines of advance:

1. *Evangelism*—Based upon mobilization of an enlarged church membership; promoted among denominations, and with the use of modern means of mass communication.
2. *Christianizing the Home*—Recognised as an integral part of the work of the Church, and led by men as well as women.
3. *Integration of Christian Programs*—More adequate cooperation between Church, Christian schools, and Christian hospitals.
4. *Winning Educated Youth to the Service of the Church*—Tackling the problem of the loss of personnel occasioned by the departure of active Christian leaders from colleges and training schools to new localities to join non-Christian organizations.
5. *Prayer*—Every Church member a praying Christian.
6. *Christian Witness*—Promoting group study and active implementation of the Christian Witness in professional life and daily conduct.
7. *Christian Stewardship*—Of money, time and opportunities.

An encouraging start was made in 1947 through inter-church cooperation and through the efforts of evangelistic teams at various centers. The movement will continue through December, 1950.

Education

There are 13 Christian colleges in China which are private institutions largely supported by American, British and Canadian funds. Eleven of them are accredited as universities by the Chinese Government, having three or more colleges. The 13 Christian institutions are Cheeloo University (Tsinan), Fukien Union College (Foochow), Ginling College (Nanking), Hangchow Christian College, Hua Chung College (Wuchang), Hwa Nan College (Foochow), Lingnan University (Canton), University of Nanking, St. John's University (Shanghai), University of Shanghai, Soochow University, West China Union University (Chengtu), and Yenching University (Peiping), with an aggregate enrollment of 11,688 for 1947-48. All told, these institutions comprise 41 colleges of liberal arts, science, medicine, agriculture, commerce, engineering, public affairs, education, law and theology.

There are 2,301 Christian middle schools in 103 cities in China. Except for 25 whose enrollment statistics are not available, these middle schools had a total registration of 74,320 boys and girls in 1948.

The China Christian Education Association held a national conference at Shanghai in October, 1947, to celebrate its 70th anniversary.

The National Committee for Christian Religious Education in China is engaged in the production of religious education materials and in the promotion of a Lay Training Movement. The Religious Education Fellowship of the committee has 536 members including 350 Chinese and 186 Westerners, who work with the churches and schools.

Medical Work

In 1946 and 1947 the mission hospitals were faced with great rehabilitation difficulties. Medical equipment was costly and there was a shortage of medical supplies and trained personnel.

In 1948, there were 216 Christian hospitals and 23 leprosaria in operation, in addition to 39 dispensaries or clinics. These units treated 5-million out-patients and 600,000 in-patients annually. There were about 1,400 lepers receiving treatment from Protestant institutions. Besides the Institute of Hospital Technology in

Hankow, five medical schools were maintained by the missionaries in Mukden, Chengtu, Shanghai, Tsinan, and Canton. In addition to the 40 Protestant Mission nursing schools now in operation, a midwifery school has been established in central China. The Peking Union Medical College at Peiping was reopened in October, 1947.

The Ministry of Health has expressed the hope that the mission hospitals would assume an increasing share in China's public health program. Efforts at recruiting more medical personnel for this important work were made by the mission hospitals. (For further details, see chapter on Medicine and Public Health.)

Christian Literature

During the war, a number of Christian publishing agencies in Chengtu pooled their resources to form the United Christian Publishers. It moved its headquarters to Shanghai in May, 1946. In November, 1947, it was reorganized and the United Christian Publishers merged with the Christian Publishers Association to form the Council of Christian Publishers. This cooperative body is composed of the Christian Literature Society; Association Press; Religious Tract Society; Canadian Mission Press; Christian Farmer; Christian Youth; National Council for Christian Religious Education; Literature Production Program (Nanking) and the Magazine Board of *Tien-feng, Truth and Life,* and *Omnibook.*

The Christian Literature Society put out 37 new Publications and 147 reprints in 1947. The *Happy Childhood,* one of the magazines published by the society, had a circulation of 13,000 copies that year.

The China Bible House sold in 1947 a total of 88,898 Bibles, 104,674 Testaments, and 583,830 portions of the Scriptures. In Shanghai alone, sales amounted to 30,468 Bibles, 25,596 New Testaments, and 44,839 portions of the Scriptures.

Work of the YMCA and YWCA

The National Committee of the YMCA convened its first postwar biennial meeting in Shanghai in April, 1947. With most of the YMCA branches suffering war damages, the committee was confronted with serious rehabilitation problems. It launched a successful finance campaign in May to raise funds for its reconstruction work.

In October, the first postwar meeting of secretaries was held in Hangchow. It was attended by 104 secretaries from 29 associations and five student centers in government universities. Emphasis was placed on community work, vocational education, religious education, boy's work, education for international understanding and student relief.

The outstanding 1947 event for the YWCA was the Council Meeting of World's YWCA's, attended by 23 countries October 15-27, in Hangchow. This was the first international YMCA Council Meeting ever held in the Far East. Following its adjournment, the China National Committee convened a two-day conference with about 50 World Council members and 70 Chinese YWCA leaders in attendance.

The YWCA conducts work in 15 city organizations. It maintains 55 Hwa Kuang girl's clubs, 58 college fellowships and 10 student centers. A mass education demonstration center has been in operation in Nanking. In addition to running various rural service centers, it conducts professional and business women's hostels in the principal cities. The response to the association's program has been most encouraging. When the Shanghai YWCA called its first meeting after V-J Day, 2,000 women attended whereas only 200 were expected. The attendance at the association's workers gatherings in Shanghai alone totaled over 100,000 in the first year after the war ended.

Relief

The National Christian Council had a relief committee at work in 1946 and 1947. From March 1, 1946, to March 18, 1947, a total of CNC$1,153-million was administered for general relief and the aid of primary school teachers, church workers, Japanese and Korean Christians in China. The aid to church workers includes the tuition for pastors' children and subsidies to students in theological studies.

The foreign donations for relief came mainly from the Church World Service, New York, U. S. A., channelled through the American Advisory Committee in Shanghai, and the British United Aid to China.

On September 30, 1947, the relief committee of the Council terminated its work. The relief program was taken over by the Protestant Service Department of the American Advisory Committee.

LANGUAGE

In China there is only one written language, which is universally used throughout the country. The spoken language, however, consists of various dialects. In recent years the National Spoken Language Movement has made considerable progress in eliminating some of these dialectal differences.

By academic classification, the Chinese spoken language may be grouped into three main parent families: the Indo-Chinese Family, the Austro-Asiatic Family, and the Altai Family.

Indo-Chinese Family

The Language of this family is spoken throughout China within the Great Wall and Tibet, and extends into the Northeastern Provinces and Sinkiang as well as to places outside of China such as French Indo-China, Burma and Siam. It is characterized by the tendency towards monosyllabism, that is, taking a single syllable for a phonologic unit; the tendency to develop a system of tones and the muting of the original voiced initial consonants. Four main branches sprang from this family; namely, Chinese, Kam-Tai, Miao-Yao, and Tibeto-Burman.

A. *Chinese*—Chinese is the most important member of the family. It is estimated that more than 400-million of the people in China speak Chinese. The Chinese dialects are divided into the following groups:

1. *The Northern Mandarin group* occupies a large area in north China, in the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, and Shantung, and extends into Sinkiang, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, Jehol and the Northeastern Provinces in the north and into Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu in the south.

2. *The Eastern Mandarin group* is spoken along the lower Yangtze in the provinces of Anhwei and Kiangsu.

3. *The Southwestern Mandarin group* is a fairly uniform type of speech spoken in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, and in parts of Hupeh and Kwangsi.

4. *The Wu group* of dialects is spoken south of the Yangtze in Kiangsu, Chekiang, and in a few districts in the eastern part of Kiangsi.

5. *The Kan-Hakka group* is spoken principally in the provinces of Kiangsi and Kwangtung. Settlements of Hakka people can also be found in Indo-China, Siam, Malay peninsula, and the South Seas.

6. *The Min group* can be further divided into two sub-groups. The northern dialect is spoken in the northern part of Fukien, the southern tongue in the southern part of Fukien, the eastern part of Kwangtung, Hainan island and parts of the Liuchow peninsula. Settlements of those using the southern dialect are found in large numbers in Taiwan, Indo-China, Burma, Siam, Malay Peninsula, and the South Seas.

7. *The Cantonese group* is spoken in Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

8. *The Hsiang group* is spoken principally in Hunan.

9. Certain isolated groups, such as the dialects spoken in the southern part of Anhwei, in Hunan and in the northeastern part of Kwangsi may be mentioned here.

B. *Kam-Tai*—The Kam-Tai branch includes the Tai languages on the one hand and the Kam-sui languages on the other. This branch is closely related to the Chinese.

1. *The Kam Sui group* is spoken in Southeastern Kweichow and in a few districts in Northern Kwangsi, and may be divided into four sub-groups, Kam, Sui, Mak, and T'en.

2. *The Tai group* may be divided into two sub-groups: (a) The Chuang group consists of many dialects spoken in a great part of Kwangsi and in the southern part of Kweichow, and also in the southeastern part of Yunnan. (b) The southwestern group consists of some of the best known of the Tai languages, mostly used outside of China. Those spoken in China include Kamti and Shan, spoken in western Yunnan; Lu, spoken in southern Yunnan; and Tai Blanc, Nung and Tho spoken in southwestern Kwangsi and southern Yunnan.

C. *Miao-Yao*—This branch is spoken by fairly primitive groups of mountaineers throughout the southwest.

1. *The Miao group* is used under various tribal names in the western mountain regions of Hunan, main part of Kweichow, and various scattered sections in northern Kwangsi, southern Szechwan and Yunnan.

2. *The Yao group* is also spoken under various tribal names in the northwestern mountain regions of Kwangtung, southern Kweichow, and different scattered mountain regions of Kwangsi and Yunnan.

There are certain common features among the Chinese, the Kam-Tai, and the Miao-Yao groups. As all the Kam-Tai and Miao-Yao languages show profound relations to and close contacts with China historically, geographically, and culturally, it seems possible to classify these three groups under one branch.

D. *Tibeto-Burman*—This branch of the Indo-Chinese family has four divisions:

1. *The Tibetan group* is found principally in Tibet and Sikang and extends into Chinghai and western Szechwan.

2. *Katchin* of the *Bodo-Naga-Katchin*

group is spoken in the northwestern border of Yunnan.

3. *The Burmese group,* which includes the various languages of the Burmese, Kuki, Chin and "Old Kuki" is now found mostly in Burma and Assam.

4. *The Lolo group* is spoken in a large portion of Yunnan, northwestern Kweichow, southern Szechwan and Sikang.

Austro-Asiatic Family

Of this large family to which the Munda, the Mon-Khmer, and, according to some scholars, the Annamite belong, only the Mon-Khmer group may be mentioned, of which there are specimens in China. Dialects of this group spoken in China include the Palaung, the Wa, and a few others found along the Yunnan-Burmese border. The Palaung shows close relationships with the Tai languages.

Altai Family

All along the northern territory of China from Sinkiang through Mongolia to the Northeastern Provinces may be found traces of this family. It extends further southwest to Asia Minor and northeast to Siberia all the way up to the Arctic coast. There are three members in this family, namely, the Turkish, the Mongolian, and the Tungus.

A. *Turkish*—This branch of the Altai family in China is found in Sinkiang, the northwest corner of Mongolia, and certain parts of Kansu. The Turkish dialects are divided into several groups but their differences are slight.

B. *Mongolian*—Mongolian dialects spoken in China are found in some parts of Hingan, Sinkiang, Chahar, Suiyuan, Jehol, Ningsia, Chinghai and Kansu.

C. *Tungus* — The Tungus branch is spoken in Northeast China. It is generally known to consist of two groups: the northern group and the southern group. The southern group is found in Heilungkiang and Kirin. Some dialects of the northern group are found in Heilungkiang, too. The northern group is spoken in Siberia. Some of the southern group speakers are also found in the Ili valley in Sinkiang.

CHAPTER 2

THE PROVINCES

China has 35 provinces with 2,023 *hsien* (counties), 36 preparatory *hsien,* one administrative bureau, and 55 municipalities, in addition to one special territory (Tibet) and 12 municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. The *hsien* are grouped into 208 administrative districts under the various provincial governments.

Before the war, China had 27 provinces. In 1939, the province of Sikang was created. After the war, the three Northeastern provinces were divided into nine provinces. After 50 years of Japanese occupation, Formosa was returned to China and renamed Taiwan.

China originally had two special territories—namely, Outer Mongolia and Tibet. Outer Mongolia was given independence in 1945 after a plebiscite conducted in accordance with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

The 35 provinces and one territory are:

Anhwei	Kwangsi
Antung	Kwangtung
Chahar	Kweichow
Chekiang	Liaoning
Chinghai	Liaopei
Fukien	Ningsia
Heilungkiang	Nunkiang
Hokiang	Shansi
Honan	Shantung
Hopei	Shensi
Hsingan	Sikang
Hunan	Sinkiang
Hupeh	Suiyuan
Jehol	Sungkiang
Kansu	Szechwan
Kiangsi	Taiwan
Kiangsu	Yunnan
Kirin	Tibet (special territory)

The 12 municipalities under direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan are:

Canton	Peiping
Chungking	Shanghai
Dairen	Shenyang (Mukden)
Hankow	Sian
Harbin	Tientsin
Nanking	Tsingtao

The following is a general review of the 35 provinces, with additional sections on Mongolia and Tibet.

TAIWAN*

Area: 35,961 sq. km.
Population: 7,026,883 (May, 1949)
No. of *hsien:* 8
Municipalities: 9
Capital: Taipeh (Taipei)

(1) *History.* In November, 1943, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met and conferred at Cairo. They announced, in the Cairo Declaration dated December 1, 1943 that ". . . all the territories Japan has stolen from the Chinese, such as Manchuria, Formosa [Taiwan], and the Pescadores [Penghu], shall be restored to the Republic of China. . . ." Taiwan and the Penghu islands were ceded to Japan after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95.

On July 26, 1945, the terms of the Cairo declaration were declared at the Potsdam conference. Subsequently the Soviet Union announced its acceptance of the Potsdam terms. They were included in the instrument of surrender accepted by Japan on September 2, 1945. General Douglas MacArthur, Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in the Pacific, designated the Chinese to receive the Japanese capitulation at Taiwan.

Taiwan officially became the 35th province of China on October 25, 1945. The importance of the island province was further enhanced when Taipeh, provincial capital, was made the provisional capital of China on December 8, 1949.

Taiwan became a part of China during the Yuan dynasty (A.D. 1206-1368) when an administrative office was established at Penghu to rule over the Penghu Islands

* In view of the current importance of Taiwan, the section on this province is treated in some detail and out of the alphabetical arrangement for the other provinces.—*The Publisher.*

and Taiwan. Although the office ceased to function temporarily after the downfall of the Yuan dynasty, it was re-established in 1405, when the Ming eunuch, Cheng Ho, began his adventures in the South Seas. Large numbers of Chinese from Fukien and Kwangtung provinces began to migrate to Taiwan in the 17th century, although as early as the Sui dynasty (A.D. 581-618) some Chinese had already moved to the island.

Portuguese sailors first went to Taiwan in 1383. The first Portuguese navigator who sighted the island from his ship, impressed by its beauty, the drama of its tropical coloring and its contours, reportedly exclaimed *"Ihla Formosa!"* which means "Isle Beautiful" in Portuguese. Formosa thus became known to the Western world as the name of the rich and strategic island off the China coast. The Chinese, however, named the island Taiwan—"Terraced Bay."

At the beginning of the 17th century, the Dutch and Spaniards took the island. In 1661-62, Cheng Cheng-kung, known to the Occidentals as Koxinga, recaptured Taiwan from the Dutch and used it as a base against the Manchus in his attempt to restore the Ming dynasty. The Manchus conquered the island in 1683. Administratively it was at first a part of Fukien province, but it was made a province in 1885.

Upon the conclusion of the first Sino-Japanese War in 1895, Taiwan was ceded to Japan. The Chinese and the aborigines, who refused to submit to Japanese rule, declared independence and established the first republic in Asia in 1895. The Japanese landed an army in Taiwan and in a few months quelled the organized resistance there. During the half-century of Japanese occupation, there were repeated uprisings. The revolutionary movement continued until its return to China in 1945, when it again became a Chinese province.

(2) *Topography.* Besides the island proper, Taiwan comprises 13 islands in the Taiwan group and 64 islands in the Penghu group. Taiwan lies off the Fukien coast, between the Philippines on the south and Japan on the north. On the west of the island province is the China Sea, and on the east the Pacific Ocean. It is 150 km. from the mainland. The three main mountain chains are the Taiwan, Taitung and Fanchiehling ranges. There are more than 30 mountain peaks of over 3,000 m. Mountain area covers approximately two-thirds of the island.

Taiwan is located between 21° 45′ and 25°38′ North latitude and 120°2′ and 122°6′ East longitude. Slightly larger than Massachusetts and Connecticut combined, the island is halved laterally by the Tropic of Cancer, so generally it is tropical in climate and vegetation. Its length is bisected by a towering mountain range. The west, between mountain and sea, is a plain covering about one-third of the island.

All rivers in Taiwan originate in the mountains in the central part of the island. The longest, more than 600 km., is the Choshuichi. The swift currents of most of the rivers make them good sources of hydroelectric power and irrigation supply but unsuitable for navigation.

Along Taiwan's lengthy coast are only two good harbors—Keelung in the north and Kaohsiung in the south; but the Penghu group of islands provides important naval bases.

Both harbors are capable of accommodating large ships and naval vessels of sizes up to 20,000 tons. Keelung harbor, with a depth of nine meters, has an abundant local coal supply. Shipping tonnage handled was increased in 1948 to 5,091,145 tons from the 1947 total of 3,618,499 tons. In the first ten months of 1949, the aggregate shipping tonnage reached 6,568,530. Import and export goods that passed through the port in the first ten months of 1949 totalled 929,019 metric tons.

With a warm climate and little rainfall, Kaohsiung harbor, from five to nine meters in depth, is especially suitable for the loading and unloading of sugar, salt and industrial chemicals. Imports and exports through Kaohsiung harbor totalled 925,169 tons in 1948, which doubled the 1947 total of 455,321 tons. In the first ten months of 1949 alone, no less than 1,144,252 tons of commodities were handled through this port. Imports accounted for 553,531 tons while exports amounted to 590,721 tons.

Important cities of Taiwan include Taipeh (Taipei), provincial capital and since December, 1949 also provisional capital of the National Government; Keelung; Taichung; Tainan; Kaohsiung; Hsinchu and Hualien.

Taipeh, with a population of 439,793 (May, 1949), is the center of the northern Taiwan basin and the largest city in Taiwan. It is also the political, economic and cultural center of the island province. Tea produced in northern Taiwan is largely concentrated there for export. Keelung, in northern Taiwan, built by the Japanese as a naval base, is now a commercial port. Tea and marine products are produced in large quantities, and the neighboring areas are rich in coal and gold deposits. An important point for trade with the South Seas, Kaohsiung, in the southern part of the island, is the center for the cement, sugar, iron and steel, and ship-building industries.

(3) *Climate.* Taiwan is in the tropical zone but the temperature, owing to oceanic winds, is even lower than that of the mainland. Rainfall is plentiful. The summer is unusually long, and the island is subject to frequent typhoon attacks.

(4) *People.* Of the total population of 7,026,883 (May, 1949), about 150,000 are aborigines of seven major tribes. The majority of the Chinese originated from Fukien, Kwangtung and other coastal provinces. Most of the island's population occupy the fertile plain which runs the entire length of the western seaboard.

(5) *Agriculture.* Principally an agricultural area, Taiwan has three main farm products—cane sugar in the south, rice in central Taiwan, and tea in the north. Other important crops are potatoes, tobacco and peanuts. Taiwan's climate is particularly suitable for growing rice, which yields two crops a year.

The increase of food production, with emphasis on irrigation and fertilizers, has been one of the most important measures adopted by the provincial authorities. At the time Taiwan was restored to China, the total population was 6,896,451 (1945), requiring an annual total of 857,000 metric tons of rice. The 1945 production was only 638,828 tons. The food shortage was then acute. In 1949, the Taiwan provincial government bought 58,000 tons of fertilizers and received an additional 40,000 tons allocated by the U. S. Economic Cooperation Administration. It also purchased locally produced fertilizers such as soybean cakes. The provincial government sold the fertilizers at low prices. As a result, subsidies to the farmers amounted to 300 billion in old Taiwan dollars in 1949.

Other measures taken to increase food production included the supply of low-price daily necessities to needy farmers. For example, during the period of the second crop in 1949, the provincial government sold 135,000 bolts of cotton cloth to the farmers at less than 20 percent of the market price. Also surplus foodstuffs were bought from landowners at equitable prices, thereby ensuring the government a steady supply of food. Technical guidance was provided, including improvement of seeds, farming methods, and insect and disease control.

Total acreage of rice land was 717,744 hectares in 1948, five percent more than the highest record under Japanese rule (1936: 681,548 hectares). Rice production reached 1,068,421 tons, representing a 67 percent increase as compared with 1945.

Rice production in 1949 totalled 1,200,000 metric tons. With the use of more fertilizers, a goal of 1,400,000 metric tons is set for 1950. The *per capita* consumption of rice in Taiwan is 143.44 kilograms per annum. Increased food production therefore will be more than sufficient for local consumption.

(6) *Land Reform.* Reduction of land rental, enforced by the Taiwan provincial government early in 1949, has proven to be a successful and important land reform measure. According to the regulations promulgated to enforce land rental reduction, land rental is limited to the maximum rate of 375/1,000, or 37.5 percent, of the total harvest of regular main crops. Under the old traditional tenancy system, tenant farmers, by individual leases and contracts, paid more than 50 percent of their total harvest of crops to their landlords. In some cases the rental was as high as 70 percent. Furthermore, the tenant farmers did not enjoy security as the landowners could repossess land any time on demand. Security deposits demanded by the landlords were sometimes twice the yearly rental. These and other malpractices made the tenant farmers' livelihood extremely difficult.

In enforcing the "37.5 percent maximum" rental system, it was specifically provided that land rent is not to exceed the prescribed maximum percentage of regular crop yields. Original rentals exceeding the limit were to be reduced to the specified ceiling; rates lower than the maximum were frozen at their level. The amount of regular crops harvested in every crop period is to be decided by the local committee for the promotion of the new land rental reduction measure. In addition, the lease of land is to be fixed for a period of from three to six years, so that the tenants can enjoy security. All leases were to be re-contracted in accordance with the new regulations.

Personnel for the promotion of the program, numbered more than 4,000, consisting of local officials and leaders, school teachers and farmers themselves, trained in April and May, 1949. Nearly 10,000 persons were mobilized to launch a publicity campaign. From May 20 to June 20, 368,322 new leases were made, affecting 299,070 farm households. Inspection in all districts was made immediately following the signing of new leases.

The table on page 36 shows old rental rates and reductions in the nine municipal and eight *hsien* districts.

Old Land Rental Rates Before Reduction

Average percentage of rental as compared with total main crops

Locality	Old Percentage	Reduction (%)
Taipeh *hsien*	55.0	17.5
Taipeh municipality	55.0	17.5
Keelung municipality	50.0	12.5
Hsinchu *hsien*	58.0	20.5
Hsinchu municipality	55.8	18.3
Taichung *hsien*	56.5	19.0
Taichung municipality	62.5	25.0
Changhua municipality	62.0	24.5
Tainan *hsien*	51.0	13.5
Tainan municipality	50.4	12.9
Chiayi municipality	51.0	13.5
Kaohsiung *hsien*	53.0	15.5
Kaohsiung municipality	54.7	17.2
Pingtung municipality	53.6	16.1
Taitung *hsien*	50.0	12.5
Hualien *hsien*	51.0	13.5
Penghu *hsien*	46.0	8.5

Besides reducing the high rentals, security deposits to be paid by the tenant to the landowner are restricted to the maximum rate of one-fourth of the total annual rental, with a yearly interest of 20 percent. "Iron rental" (whereby the tenant had to pay the rent no matter what happened—including famine and other calamities), by-product rental, and pre-payment of rental have all been abolished.

An extensive survey established that the livelihood of the tenant farmers has been substantially improved by an average of 25.4 percent throughout the province through enforcement of these measures. The highest ratio of improvement, 36 percent, was found in Taipeh municipality; and the lowest ratio, 18 percent, in Chiayi municipal district.

(7) *Currency.* The Taiwan provincial currency, circulated only in the province, has survived both the *fapi* and the Gold Yuan notes of the mainland. The Gold Yuan note was adjusted from time to time according to prevailing financial market conditions. Exchange was finally suspended in June, 1949, after rapid depreciation of value of the Gold Yuan. Exchange was resumed July 11 after the Silver Yuan replaced the Gold Yuan.

On June 15, 1949, the Taiwan provincial currency also underwent a local reform. The new currency is directly pegged with the U. S. dollar at exchange rate of five New Taiwan Dollars for one U. S. dollar. The old Taiwan currency was permitted to remain in circulation until December 31, 1949, and could be exchanged at the Bank of Taiwan at the rate of 400,000 old dollars for one new dollar.

Maximum issuance of the New Taiwan Dollar, known as the *Hsin Taipi,* is fixed by the provincial financial authorities at 200-million, which is backed by 800,000 ounces of gold as reserve. The new currency may be used to purchase foreign exchange according to the provisions of the *Regulations Governing Imports and Exports, Remittances, Gold and Silver* in Taiwan.

The new *Taipi* [Taiwan currency] Reserve Supervisory Commission publishes periodically the total amount to date of notes issued and the reserves delivered to the custody of the issue department of the Bank of Taiwan.

As of July 31, 1949, total issuance of new Taiwan dollar notes was NT$68,772,070. In addition, there were NT$9,662,079 old Taiwan dollar notes and bank orders still in circulation. Thus there was a total of NT$78,434,149.80 in notes and orders circulating in the province. This was equivalent to 280,121 ounces of gold.

New Taiwan Dollar notes issued up to December 31, 1949 totalled NT$197,923,782.50.*

(8) *Industry and Mining.* The provincial government reported that at the end of November, 1949, factories in Taiwan totalled 9,923. More than half, or 5,026 factories, were food processors. Other industrial categories included chemicals—1,259 factories; ceramics—1,074 factories; and metals—928 factories. Lumber and woodwork, spinning and weaving, and machine tools are other important factory categories. Sugar production in 1949 amounted to 630,000 metric tons, 21 times that of 1945 when China took over Taiwan from the Japanese. The peak production of Taiwan sugar under Japanese rule was 1,400,000 metric tons.

There are considerable deposits of gold, silver, copper and coal, and also oil fields, most of them requiring development.

Much of Taiwan's industrial and mining establishments were destroyed by wartime bombing. When China regained Taiwan in 1945, 40 to 80% war damage to these establishments was found. Rehabilitation of industry and mining enterprises has continued since then.

(9) *Trade.* Chief among Taiwan's export goods are cane sugar, rice, tea, natural camphor and menthol, and fruits, while the main imports are cotton piece-goods, flour, fertilizers and kerosene.

Foreign trade figures for the first 11 months of 1949, released by the Bank of Taiwan, are: total exports, US$28,506,069.08, of which sugar exports equalled US$12,936,366.65; and total imports, US$20,284,619.68.

(10) *Administration.* When China regained Taiwan after the end of World War II the administration of Taiwan was placed under a Chief Administrator. General Chen Yi was appointed to the post in October, 1945. The administration was reorganized in accordance with the regular provincial organization system in April, 1947. Wei Tao-ming, former Ambassador to the U. S., was appointed governor of the province. General Chen Cheng took over the governorship in January, 1949 and remained at the post until he resigned on December 15, 1949. K. C. Wu, formerly mayor of Shanghai and Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, became governor of Taiwan on December 21, 1949.

The Taiwan provincial government organization was as follows: governor, K. C. Wu; secretary-general, Dison Poe; civil affairs commissioner, Chiang Wei-chuan; finance commissioner, Jen Hsien-chun; education commissioner, Chen Hsueh-ping; reconstruction commissioner, Peng Teh; agriculture commissioner, Hsu Ching-chung; and members of the provincial commission, Peng Meng-chi, Li Yu-pang, Yang Chao-chia, Li Yi-chung, Yu Mi-chien, Chu Wen-po, Liu Chien-shan, Tu Tsung-ming, Chen Chi-ching, Li Lien-chun, Hua Ching-chi, Lin Jih-kao, Chen Shang-wen, Chen Tien-shun, Chen Ching-fen, Yen Chin-hsien, and Tsou Ching-chih. Among the members of the provincial commission 17 are native Taiwanese.*

To increase administrative efficiency and to reduce expenses, readjustment of the Taiwan administrative structure was undertaken during 1949 under the direction of Governor Chen Cheng. Among the various organs under the provincial government, 16 which were considered non-essential were abolished, six units were amalgamated, two units were reorganized, 32 units were readjusted and placed under a new system to increase efficiency, and five units were reduced to smaller organs. During the same period, only four new organs were established.

(11) *Education.* Abolition of the educational system enforced by the Japanese was the first step taken to rehabilitate Taiwan's schools when Chinese administration was re-established in 1945. Japanese-prescribed curricula for all grades of educational institutions were abolished, and in their stead new curricula in conformity with standards of the mainland were adopted. Enrollment in all classes of educational institutions has registered a sharp increase in four years.

The table on page 38 gives comparative data for the 1945 and 1949 academic years.

Taiwan has a high ratio of school attendance among all school-age children. In December, 1949, 78.77 percent of 1,067,647 school-age children were actually receiving school education.

(12) *Communications.* Taiwan has about 3,600 km. of railways which skirt the island. Highways total about 3,700 km. Steamship lines connect the province with the mainland (service now suspended), the South Seas, Japan and other parts of the world. Airlines link Taiwan with Shanghai, Canton and other cities on the mainland (service now suspended). Air service is maintained with Hongkong. In December, 1949, Taipeh, the provincial capital, became a stopover point on the Manila-Tokyo airline.

The first railroad ever built on the island was constructed in 1891 by the Chinese. Running from Keelung to Taipeh, it was 28.6 km. long. Although the Japanese had completed extensive rail-

* Note issue as of January 31, 1950 totalled NT$177,923,782.50, NT$20,000,000 less than the 1949 total. The decrease resulted from a policy restricting note issuance by the Taiwan provincial government.

* The provincial government underwent another reorganization in January, 1950. Chiang Wei-chuan and Peng Teh were replaced by Yang Chao-chia (as civil affairs commissioner) and Chen Shang-wen (as reconstruction commissioner).

SCHOOLS AND THEIR ENROLLMENT IN TAIWAN

Type of Schools	1945 Academic Year		1st Term, 1949 Academic Year (figures of December, 1949)	
	Number	Enrollment	Number	Enrollment
Elementary	1,053	850,097	1,191	901,950
Intermediary (middle, normal, and vocational schools)	221	68,568	206	117,721
Higher (university and independent colleges)	5	2,022	6	5,949

SOURCE: Education Department, Taiwan Provincial Government

way construction in Taiwan, the rails, ties, bridges as well as locomotives and rolling stock were in poor condition when the Chinese took over in 1945. Railway rehabilitation, coupled with new installations and extended services, improved both passenger and freight transportation operations. During the first ten months of 1949, a daily average of 437 trains travelling 27,572 km. over the 927.7 km. of railways in operation was registered. Passenger and freight haulage increased sharply during the second half of 1949. In July, 1949, 3,771,499 passengers were carried; increasing to 6,110,271 in October.

At the end of 1949, there were 259 locomotives, 471 passenger coaches, and 5,685 freight cars. November, 1945, rolling stock included 244 locomotives (of which 110 were damaged or unserviceable), 498 passenger coaches (173 damaged), and 5,880 freight cars (807 damaged).

Before the Chinese took over Taiwan, there was a total of 3,797.5 km. of trunks and branch highways plus 13,718.1 km. of rural roads. There was an average of 48 km. of roads of all grades for every square kilometer of the island's area, a ratio higher than that of any mainland province.

The maximum monthly total of 39,717 highway bus runs was registered during 1949, with the peak record of 1,469,128 passengers transported during the month. In freight transportation, from the latter part of April to the end of October, 1949, 21,747.5 tons of freight were carried. The performance record was 369,093.2 ton-km. Compared with operations during the first month under Chinese management in 1945, transport capacity has increased no less than 35 times.

In April, 1949, the Taiwan Navigation Corporation was reorganized. Reinforced by seven ships leased from the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, the corporation had 16 ships in service in 1949. Ships of the company participated in the government evacuation of Shanghai, Tsingtao, Foochow, Amoy and Swatow during 1949. During the January-October period, 1949, Taiwan Navigation Corporation's ships carried a monthly average of 1,117 passengers and 12,790 tons of cargo. Service to Singapore, Siam, Bangkok, Manila, Korea and Japan has been maintained.

Beginning April, 1949, postal and telecommunications services were separated upon the establishment of the Taiwan Postal Administration. A monthly average of 2,530,268 pieces of mail, including parcel post, was carried and handled, as compared with an average of 2,235,536 pieces per month in 1948; and 2,341,881 pieces in 1947.

Shortly after Taiwan was regained in 1945, there were only 8,786 subscribers of city telephones. In 1949 there were 16,567 subscribers. For long-distance telephone, bare wire totalled 12,643 pair-km. and underground cables totalled 17,649 pair-km. in 1949. A total of 4,418 km., of telegraph lines was in service in 1949. Radio-telephone service is maintained with Hongkong, Macao, Tokyo and the United States.

(13) *Program for 1950.* At the 121st meeting of the Taiwan provincial council on November 4, 1949, the provincial government adopted a draft resolution entitled "Guiding Principles for the Administration of Taiwan in 1950." This resolution has been adopted by both the provincial government and the Taiwan Administrative Conference for enforcement.

Covering aspects of political, economic and cultural affairs, the program emphasizes the defense of Taiwan and improvements for both the province and the people. Politically, the main tasks include promotion of local self-government, continuation of the land reform measures, organization for self-defense, strengthening of government structure, and furthering cooperation between the people and the armed forces. The resolution requires: "All measures must be aimed at improving the standard of living of the people, adjusting to the people's needs, overcoming their difficulties, and guaranteeing their security, so that the government and the people may make a joint effort in utilizing the province's manpower, material and financial resources to coordinate with military operations and to win the final victory in the anti-communist war."

Economically, efforts will be made toward the increase of production, stabilization of finances, development of foreign trade, control of commodities for equitable distribution, and improvement in communications facilities. In 1950, the objective is to produce commodities worth US$50,000,000 and to increase rice production by another 20 percent (to 1,400,000 tons). In taking measures for food production increase, attention will be centered on irrigation, production of fertilizers, improvement of seeds and farm implements, and reclamation. Development of private industries will be intensified along with improvement in government operated enterprises.

In Taiwan, primary education is tuition-free and the pupils receive free textbooks from the government. Taiwan provincial authorities hope that it will be possible to issue, in full or at least in part, all necessary school supplies. More scholarships will be made available in middle schools and universities, and employment training and guidance will be given to school graduates.

ANHWEI

Area: 146,303 km.
Population: 22,462,217 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 63
Municipality: 1
Capital: Hofei

(1) *Topography.* Anhwei may be divided into three parts. The northern section, which covers mainly the Hwai river valley, constitutes part of the North China Plain. Central Anhwei, which embraces the Yangtze valley, is the richest and the most densely populated region of the province. Southern Anhwei is rather mountainous. The population in the small basins is dense and agriculture flourishes.

The two main mountain ranges are the Wanshan, which extends into northern Anhwei and is known as the Tapieh mountains; and the Huangshan, which is part of the Hsienhsia range extending into Chekiang and Kiangsi. Huangshan, or the "Yellow Mountain," is a famous scenic spot in the triangular area bordering Sihsien, Ihsien and Taiping in southern Anhwei.

The Yangtze and Hwai rivers are the two most important rivers in this province. Before it was returned to its prewar course, the Yellow river poured into the Hwai river. As a result, flood was a serious problem in northern Anhwei, northern Kiangsu and eastern Honan.

(2) *Climate.* The climate in Anhwei is generally mild, but varies slightly in the northern, central and southern parts. There is sufficient rainfall.

(3) *Agriculture.* The main crops are rice and tea. Anhwei produces 60 percent of China's tea. Other products such as beans, kaoliang, corn, tobacco, peanuts and silk are also abundant.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Coal is found in Fanchang, Suhsien, Hwaiyuan, and Kweichih; iron in Tangtu and Washan; and copper in Tungling. Factories are concentrated in Wuhu above Nanking along the Yangtze and Pengpu, along the Tsientsin-Pukow railway. Most of them are flour mills and small chemical works. Important industries include the manufacture of paper and Chinese ink.

(5) *Communications.* Anhwei railways are the Tientsin-Pukow, the Nanking-Wuhu, and the Hwainan lines. The Tientsin-Pukow line passes through the northeastern corner of the province, while the Nanking-Wuhu line runs through the southeastern part. The Hwainan railway begins from Tienchiaan on the south bank of the Hwai river, crosses Hofei and Tsaohsien and joins the Nanking-Wuhu railway at Yuki, opposite Wuhu.

There are 5,500 km. of highways in Anhwei, Hofei, Wuhu, Pengpu, Hwaining (Anking) and Chiehshou are junctions.

River ports along the Yangtze include Wuhu, Hwaining, Tatung and Tikang. Steamboats can negotiate most of the smaller rivers.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) HOFEI, the provincial capital, is geographic center of the province and is a rice and cotton market center. It is linked with Wuhu by rail and Hwaining by road.

(b) HWAINING (Anking), located on the northern bank of the Yangtze river in western Anhwei, was the provincial capital before the war.

(c) TUNGCHENG, north of Hwaining, is the birthplace of many famous men of letters during the Manchu dynasty.

(d) WUHU, on the Yangtze, is one of the largest rice markets in China.

(e) PENGPU, in northern Anhwei, has been made a municipality under the provincial government. It is on the Tientsin-Pukow railway and is the converging point of several important highways.

(f) CHIEHSHOU, in northern Anhwei, has become an important commercial town since the war. It is on the upper reaches of the Ying river and is connected with Honan and Hupeh by highways.

(g) CHIMEN, in southern Anhwei, is a tea center. The Chimen (Keemun) black tea is now world-famous. Chimen also produces porcelain clay.

(h) SIHSIEN (Hweichow) in southern Anhwei is famous for Chinese inksticks, writing brushes and ink slabs. Hweichow merchants can be found scattered throughout the lower Yangtze provinces.

ANTUNG

Area: 62,279 sq. km.
Population: 2,992,305 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 18
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Tunghwa.

(1) *Topography.* The Changpai mountains, stretching northeastward across the province, are the principal mountain ranges of the northeast, and form the watershed of the Yalu, Tumen and Sungari rivers. The highest peak, Paitoushan (White-head Mountain), rises 3,000 m. above sea level. The Yalu river, which empties into the Yellow Sea, forms a natural boundary between Antung province and Korea. It is 806 km. in length, and waters an area of 38,000 sq. km. The Sungari river, originating on the northern slope of the Changpai mountains, flows past Fusung into Kirin.

(2) *Climate.* The mean temperature for the province, exclusive of the Changpai mountains, is 42 degrees F., similar to that of Liaoning province. The Yalu river is frozen over from November through February. Rainfall is more abundant than in Liaoning province, ranging from about 975 mm. per year at Antung to about 675 mm. for the region around Tunghwa and Hailung.

(3) *Forests and Agriculture.* Thick forests, those in the Yalu river basin being especially rich in virgin growths, cover approximately 2-million acres.

Principal agricultural products are soy bean, from Hailung, Tungfeng and Chingyuan; paddy rice from Antung, Tatungkou, and Liuho; kaoliang from the Tunghwa area; corn and tobacco from Fengcheng and Antung; and ginseng from the Fusung area.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Coal is plentiful, though mostly undeveloped. Principal coal beds are found at Yantungkou (estimated at 30-million tons), Suitungkou, Sungshu, Fusung, Wankou, Chian, Shansungkang and at Wutaokiang and Pataokiang in the Tunghwa district.

Iron deposits are known to be at Chitaokou (estimated at 10-million tons, 53 percent iron content) and Santaokou, both in Chian; Talitzekou (estimated at 70-million tons, 63 percent iron content), Laoling, and Antzeho in Lingkiang.

Rich gold deposits have been found in Huinan and Paomachwan. Other gold mines have been worked at Koujentientze, north of Chingyou; Wanpaokaitze in Kwantien; and Tamiaokou in the Tunghwa district.

Among other mineral products are lead from Kwantien and Fengcheng; copper from Huinan; and alum from Fengcheng.

Seven hydro-electric plants, with a total capacity of 1,645,000 kws., had been planned for the Yalu river valley by the Japanese as early as 1937, but only one of them, the Suifeng plant, was completed.

Tunghwa was developed as an iron industrial center, producing light machine products; while Antung, another center of light industries, was noted for its chemical plants.

(5) *Communications.* About 600 km. of railway lines crisscross the province. They are:

Antung-Shenyang Line: from Shenyang in Liaoning to Antung, via Lienshankwan and Fengcheng, connecting with the railroads of northern Korea;

Meihokow-Chian Line: from Meihokow through Liuho and Tunghwa to Chian, roughly parallel to the Shenyang-Antung line;

Yungchi-Hailung Line: from Yungchi in Kirin province;

Shenyang-Hailung Line: from Shenyang in Liaoning province via Fusung, Chingyuan and Meihokow; and

A small section of the Szepingkai-Shahokow branch line in Liaopei province runs between Tungfeng and Shahokow.

Highways connect Antung with Kwantien and Fengcheng; Hailung with Tunghwa and Fusung; Huanjen and Tunghwa with Shenyang in Liaoning province; Fengcheng with Chuangho in Liaoning province; and Tungfeng with Sifeng in Liaopei province.

The Yalu river is navigable for about 600 km., the many rapids in the upper reaches are maneuverable only to wooden rafts. Tatung harbor, at the mouth of the Yalu outside of Antung, is the only available sea port, but its commercial importance is limited by the great variation in its water-marks between high and low tides.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) TUNGHWA, the provincial capital, is Antung's communication center. Here the building of junks prospers.

(b) ANTUNG, the largest city in the province, is on the west shore of the Yalu river. It is a marketing center for soy bean, timber, cotton, wheat flour and kerosene.

CHAHAR

Area: 283,675 sq. km.
Population: 2,185,774 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 19
No. of Mongolian Banners: 19
Municipality: 1
Capital: Kalgan

(1) *Topography.* Chahar derives its name from the Chahar Banner of Mongolia, meaning "Near Border." Its northern region belongs to the Mongolian plateau, while the southern portion is a steppe, excellent for grazing.

The Yinshan range, extending from Suiyuan, forms a number of slopes and small basins in Chahar. The Hsiaowutaishan range is in the southern part of the province. Its highest peak is about 3,500 m.

The Yungting river, which originates in Shansi, runs through Chahar before it turns into Hopei. The Pai river which originates in Tushihkow runs southward into Jehol and Hopei.

(2) *Climate.* Chahar has a continental climate with strong winds and scanty rainfall. Summer is hot, while winter is bitterly cold.

(3) *People.* The inhabitants are mainly Chinese and Mongols. There are also some Manchus and Tibetans. (For further details, see section on Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* Agricultural products such as wheat, barley, kaoliang and beans are produced in areas south of the Great Wall. Chahar produces large quantities of mushrooms and rhubarb.

Animal husbandry is the province's main form of revenue. Chahar is the home of the well-known Mongolian ponies. Cattle, sheep and camels are also numerous. Furs and wool are the chief items of export.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Chahar is rich in iron, its production being next only to Liaoning and Hupeh. The main iron-producing areas are Lungkwan and Hsuanhwa. Coal is also abundant.

Industry is still in the infancy stage in this province.

(6) *Communications.* The Peiping-Suiyuan railway passes through Chahar at Hwailai, Hsuanhwa and Kalgan. Highways total 2,500 km. Trade routes connect the province with Outer Mongolia and the northeastern provinces.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KALGAN (Wanchuan), the provincial capital, is a strategic pass on the Great Wall and the largest trading town in the Inner Mongolian provinces.

(b) TOULUN, eastern Chahar, is the communication and commercial link between Inner Mongolia and Outer Mongolia. Goods concentrated here include furs, wool, animals, rugs and carpets, and timber.

(c) HSUANHWA, on the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, is an iron and coal town. The Lungyen Iron Mining Company is located here.

CHEKIANG

Area: 102,646 sq. km.
Population: 19,958,715 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 77
Municipality: 1
Capital: Hangchow

(1) *Topography.* Chekiang, south of Kiangsu, is also largely a plain, but its southwestern part is rather mountainous. The Hsienhsia, Yentang and Tienmu ranges all extend northeastward from the Fukien, Kiangsi and Anhwei borders. Among the mountains the most famous is the Buddhist Tientaishan in eastern Chekiang.

Important rivers in the province include the Chientang, Tsaongo, Yung, and Ou rivers. The West Lake in Hangchow is known for its scenic beauty. The Grand Canal flows past Kiashing and reaches Hangchow.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is generally mild except in areas south of the Hienhsia range where it is semi-tropical.

(3) *Agriculture and Fishery.* Chekiang is one of China's richest provinces. Important agricultural products are rice, cotton, silk, wheat, and tea. It is China's largest silk producer.

The Chushan archipelago is the largest fishing area along the East China Sea

coast, with over 1-million active fishermen.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Chekiang is not rich in minerals. Among its better-known mines are the coal collieries in Changhing. Salt and alum are abundant.

The most important industry in Chekiang is silk, with Hangchow and Wuhing as the two main producing centers. Other important products include Shaohsing wine, Kinhwa ham, and Ningpo furniture.

(5) *Communications.* There are two railways in Chekiang: the Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo and the Chekiang-Kiangsi lines.

Highways total more than 3,200 km. Important highway centers are Hangchow, Ningpo, Lishui, Kiangshan, and Wenchow.

Navigation along Chekiang's rivers is limited to small steamboats. The only exception is the lower reaches of the Chientang river, which was found navigable to coastal ships in 1948.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) HANGCHOW (Pop. 606,136—June, 1948), the provincial capital located on the north shore of the Chientang river, is both an industrial and educational center. The National Chekiang University and the Hangchow Christian College are located there. The West Lake draws tourists by hundreds of thousands yearly.

(b) HAINING, at the mouth of the Chientang river, is noted for its bore which occurs every fall.

(c) CHAPU, north of the Hangchow bay, was selected by Dr. Sun Yat-sen as the site for the construction of a large harbor.

(d) MOKANSHAN, famous summer resort in Wukang, northwest of Hangchow.

(e) KINHWA, railway town in central Chekiang, is famous for its ham and dates.

(f) NINGPO is the marketing center for eastern Chekiang. Fenghwa, near Ningpo, is Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's birthplace.

(g) The CHUSHAN ARCHIPELAGO, a group of more than 200 islands off the Chekiang coast, forms important fishing grounds. Chushan Island is the largest; on it is located the Pootoo mountain, one of China's Buddhist sacred mountains.

(h) SHAOHSING, railway town southeast of Hangchow, is an ancient city with many spots of historical interest. Shaohsing's yellow wine is famous throughout China.

(i) WENCHOW (Yungkia) is a small port in southern Chekiang. Important commodities concentrated here include timber, bamboo, tea, and leather.

CHINGHAI

Area: 667,236 sq. km.
Population: 1,307,719 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 19
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 1
No. of Mongolian Banners: 29
Municipality: 1
Capital: Sining

(1) *Topography.* Chinghai (Kokonor) derives its name from the 4,200 sq. km. Chinghai (lake). The province is part of the Tibetan plateau, where the headwaters of the Yangtze and Yellow rivers are found. The Bayenkara (mountain) is the divide of the two longest rivers in China. In the Tsaidam basin in the mid-northwestern part of the province is the Tsaidam river.

The Bayenkara and Chilien are Chinghai's main ranges, both being branches of the Kunlun range.

(2) *Climate.* Chinghai has a continental climate with a severe winter. Temperature varies greatly between day and night. The Tsaidam basin has a hot summer and little rainfall. In the southeastern part, rainfall is comparatively frequent.

(3) *People.* There are more Tibetans and Mongols in Chinghai than Chinese and Mohammedans. The Mongols and Tibetans are organized in banners and groups. (For further details, see sections on Mongolia and Tibet.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The agricultural areas are in the eastern part of the province. The principal crops are wheat and barley, which are barely enough for the province's own consumption. Chinghai produces large quantities of medicinal herbs.

The Mongols are nomads. Cattle is their main form of wealth. Sheep's wool produced in Chinghai is considered the best in China.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Chinghai produces gold, coal and salt, and is rich in iron, silver, tin, aluminum, and other mineral deposits. There is practically no modern industry, but woolen goods, hide and oil are produced.

(6) *Communications.* There is no railway in Chinghai. Old trade roads have been made into highways which now connect Chinghai with Sikang and Kansu. Its rivers are only navigable by rafts.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) SINING (Pop. 55,564—June, 1948), the provincial capital, was an ancient town for trade and contact between the interior provinces and the border peoples. It is now a marketing center of sheep's wool, timber, salt, tea and daily necessities.

(b) TAERHSSU, southwest of Sining, has a famous lamasery with more than 3,000 lamas.

(c) HWANGYUAN, northwest of Sining on the Hwang river, is the largest trading town among the Chinese, Mongols, Tibetans and Mohammedans, and is known as the "Little Peking" of Chinghai.

(d) YUSHU, in southern Chinghai, is the starting point of a highway to Sikang.

FUKIEN

Area: 120,114 sq. km.
Population: 11,143,083 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 67
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Foochow

(1) *Topography.* Fukien is mountainous in the northwestern and western parts and levels off as it approaches the sea. The mountain ranges are Wuyishan, Fenglingshan, Taiyunshan, and Liangshan. The leading river is the Min.

Fukien is located almost directly west of Taiwan. Between them in the Formosa Straits are the Pescadores (Penghu).

(2) *Climate.* Its climate is mild and seasonal changes are regular in the south-eastern part of the province. The north-western regions enjoy almost continental climate. Rainfall is heavy, especially in June, July and August. Typhoons often sweep the Fukien coast after July.

(3) *Agriculture.* Although Fukien grows rice, corn and wheat, it is not self-sufficient in food. It produces large quantities of sugar, fruits, tea and timber.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* There are considerable coal and iron deposits, but mining is not yet developed.

Fukien's ship-building industry has a long history. Mamoi once served as a base of the Chinese Navy. Other industries include paper, sugar, tea and textiles. Fukien's lacquerware is famous throughout the country.

(5) *Communications.* A survey for a railway linking Foochow with the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway in Kiangsi was completed in 1948. Fukien has about 4,500 km. of highways, which connect it with its neighboring provinces.

Steamships from all parts of the country call at Foochow and Amoy, but river navigation is limited to small steamboats and wooden junks.

Both Foochow and Amoy are communication stations for the national airlines.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) FOOCHOW (Pop. 300,337—June 1948), the provincial capital, is both a political and commercial center. Tea is the most important commodity; next come timber, paper, lacquerware and tobacco.

(b) MAMOI (Mawei), 25 km. east of Foochow, is a naval base, where the Naval Academy was formerly located.

(c) AMOY (Pop. 124,075—June 1948), serves as a port city for southern Fukien and eastern Kiangsi. Tea is the principal export item.

(d) LUNGKI, on the north bank of the Lung river, is a commercial center for southeastern Fukien. Important commodities include silk and sugar.

HEILUNGKIANG

Area: 257,763 sq. km.
Population: 2,844,211 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 25
No. of Mongolian Banner: 1
Municipality: 1
Capital: Peian

(1) *Topography.* The Ilihuli mountains run along the Hsingan-Heilungkiang border, being part of the Great Hsingan range. Further south it becomes known as the Little Hsingan range. The waters on the southern slope feed into the Nonni river; on the northern slope, the Amur. The Little Hsingan runs southward from the Ilihuli mountains as far as the border of Hokiang province, forming the watershed for the Amur, the Nonni and the Sungari rivers. The highest peak in the Ilihulis reaches 1,833 m.

The Amur is the largest river and forms a boundary between China and the Soviet Union. The Nonni river flows along the Hsingan-Heilungkiang border down to Nunkiang province.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is extremely cold, especially in its northern and western parts. The ground is frozen and covered with snow from October through April. The highest temperature reached during the year is about 95 degrees F.; the lowest, about 40 degrees F. below zero; with the mean temperature at about 28 degrees F. Annual rainfall is about 375 mm.

(3) *People.* Besides the Chinese, Manchu and Mongol elements, there is a small number of Orochons, expert horsemen and hunters.

(4) *Agriculture.* The agricultural section of the province is centered around Peian, the provincial capital, and the towns in the south. Chief products are soybean, wheat, rice, tobacco and hemp, the first two occupying an important position among the northeastern provinces. The largest forest reserve, practically all virgin timber, is in the Little Hsingan

region and consists of various species of pine, poplar and birch. The estimated area of the reserve is 24-million acres; the amount, 34-billion cubic feet.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Gold is the most important mineral produced in this province, accounting for about 85 percent of the entire reserve in the northeast. Principal mines are located at Moho, Huma, Oupu, Nuncheng, Heiho and Aigun, of which the placer mines at Moho rank first in the entire nation, having a gold content of 60 to 70 percent.

Industries are practically non-existent, aside from small establishments of flour mills, distilleries and vegetable oil plants.

(6) *Communications.* The following railways are centered at Peian, totalling about 984 km.:

Tsitsihar-Peian Line: linking Peian with Tsitsihar in Nunkiang province;

Hulun-Peian Line: from Hulun in Nunkiang province to Peian through Suihua, Hailun and Tungpei, being the chief carrier line for agricultural products from this province;

Peian-Heiho Line: an important strategic line, extending to Aigun and Heiho, on the international boundary, over the Little Hsingan mountains;

Suihua-Kiamusze Line: principal inlet for coal from Hokiang province; and

Ningnien-Holungmen Line: from Ningnien in Nunkiang province to Holungmen, by way of Naho and Nuncheng, passing through farm and forest areas.

Chief artery for water transportation is the Amur river, navigable by steamers all the way below Moho. Highways exist in the southern part of the province, linking the various *hsien* cities.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) PEIAN, the provincial capital, is a railway junction and trading center for agricultural and animal products.

(b) AIGUN, railway terminus, is a strategic town on the Chinese-Soviet border.

(c) MOHO, on Chinese-Soviet border, produces gold.

HOKIANG

Area: 134,406 sq. km.
Population: 1,841,000 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 17
Municipality: 1
Capital: Kiamusze

(1) *Topography.* The Little Hsingan mountains, running along the border of Hokiang and Heilungkiang provinces, form a wooded plateau on the banks of the Sungari. The Wanta mountains run in a northeasterly direction from Muling in Sungkiang province to the junction of the Sungari and Ussuri rivers, and form a watershed for the Muling and Jaoli rivers. Hsiaopaishan is on the Hokiang-Sungkiang provincial border.

The Sungari river, entering from the border of Sungkiang and Nunkiang provinces, receives the waters of the Mutankiang from the south and a couple of tributaries from the north, before it joins the Amur river at Tungkiang. Below Kiamusze the Sungari's low banks often are responsible for overflows in flood. The Amur river on the Chinese-Soviet border is joined first by the Sungari and then by the Ussuri, and eventually empties into the sea through Soviet territory. The Ussuri river originates in Soviet territory, runs northward along the Chinese-Soviet boundary, receiving the waters of the Muling and Jaoli rivers, and finally joins the Amur. The Muling and Jaoli rivers, tributaries to the Ussuri, are utilized partly for navigation and partly for irrigation.

(2) *Climate.* The temperature varies over a wide range, from about 35 degrees F. below zero in the winter to over 100 degrees F. in the summer, with the yearly mean at about 35 degrees F. Freezing sets in after October and lasts through April. Rainfall is most abundant in May and June, amounting to about 575 mm. for the year.

(3) *People.* Besides Chinese and Manchurians, there are large numbers of Mongols, as well as Japanese and Korean immigrants in recent years. Among the local tribes people are the Warkas, inhabiting the region of the Hsingkan (Khanka) lake, and the Orochons in the Little Hsingan mountain region, the former noted for their skill in fishing and the latter in hunting.

(4) *Agriculture.* Agriculture is not yet well developed, except for some soybean produced near Ilan in the Sungari valley, and rice in the vicinity of Mishan. The forest area in the lower reaches of the Sungari covers about 12-million acres, with a timber reserve estimated at 25-billion cubic feet.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Coal is produced in three mines at Mishan, with a total deposit estimated at 1,385-million tons; at Sanhsing, estimated at 334-million tons; and at Hokang, estimated at 350-million tons. These mines have a combined production of over 500,000 tons yearly, most of which is shipped to Harbin.

The only industry worth mentioning is a munitions works at Kiamusze. The rest consists mostly of small handicrafts.

(6) *Communications.* There are four railway lines serving this province with a total length of about 675 kms.:

Tumenkiang-Kiamusze Line: from Tumenkiang in Sungkiang province, on the Korean border, to Kiamusze;

Linkou-Hulin Line;

Kiamusze-Suihua Line: from Lienkiangkou, on the northern bank of the Sungari opposite Kiamusze, to Suihua in Heilungkiang province; and

Hokang Line: a coal-carrying line from Lienkiangkou to the Hsingshan mines.

Water transportation is of major importance, the Sungari river being navigable beyond Harbin, and the Ussuri accessible to small steamboats as far as Hulin. The Mutankiang is also navigable during the flood seasons.

A highway network, centering at Kiamusze and radiating toward Tungkiang, Mishan, Ilan and Poli, has been developed.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KIAMUSZE, the provincial capital, is on the south bank of the Sungari river, and the terminus of the Tumenkiang-Kiamusze railway. It is mainly an agricultural town.

(b) ILAN, a railway town, is a commercial center in the Mutankiang valley.

HONAN

Area: 165,141 sq. kms.
Population: 29,654,095 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 111
Capital: Kaifeng

(1) *Topography.* Honan is in the central valley of the Yellow river. While the western region is mountainous, the central and eastern parts are generally flat.

There are five mountain ranges in Honan: the Taihang, Hsiaoshan, Funiushan, Sungshan and Tapiehshan. Sungshan is one of China's five sacred mountains.

The tributaries include the Yellow and Hwai rivers and the Grand Canal. The Yellow river is known as "China's Sorrow," because of frequent floods it causes. Below Chengchow in central Honan, the river has changed its course eight times from the 23rd century B.C. to 1938. The last change occurred in 1938 when the dikes at Chungmou gave way during a severe engagement between Chinese and Japanese forces. The water cut a new course across eastern Honan, northern Anhwei and northern Kiangsu, and entered the Hwai river. After the war, the river was forced back into its old course.

(2) *Climate.* Honan has a continental climate with a sharp contrast in temperature between summer and winter. There is plenty of rainfall in late summer and early autumn.

(3) *Agriculture.* Wheat is the chief crop. Next come soybeans, cotton, kaoliang, peanuts and tobacco. The province also produces large quantities of fruits.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Honan produces a large amount of coal. The two major coal-producing areas are Tsiaotso and Liuhokow. There are also large iron, copper, tin, lead, and silver deposits.

Cotton and flour mills and chemical works are mostly in Kaifeng, Chengchow, Anyang and Hsuchang.

(5) *Communications.* The three railways already completed are the Peiping-Hankow, Lunghai and Taoching lines. About 7,000 km. of highways link all parts of the province.

The Hwai river serves as the main waterway between Honan and Anhwei. There is little navigation on the Yellow river as it contains too much silt.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) KAIFENG, the provincial capital, is situated on the Lunghai railway in the eastern part of the province south of the Yellow river. It was the capital of the Five Dynasties and the North Sung dynasty.

(b) CHENGCHOW (Chenghsien), junction of the Peiping-Hankow and Lunghai railways, is the province's communication and economic center. Cotton and hide from Shensi, Kansu and western Honan are concentrated here before they are shipped to Tientsin, Tsingtao and Hankow. The Peiping-Hankow railway bridge across the Yellow river is located north of the city, and is the longest one of its kind in China.

(c) ANYANG, railway town in northern Honan, is an historic and mining center. Before the war large-scale excavation was conducted for the discovery of historical objects of the Shang (Yin) dynasty (1766-1122 B.C.). The artifacts are among the most primitive archaeological specimens of Chinese history. Liuhokow, the coal center, is to the northwest of Anyang.

(d) LOYANG, railway city in western Honan, was China's capital during the Eastern Han dynasty. The National Government chose Loyang as the nation's provisional capital during the 1932 Sino-Japanese war in Shanghai. The White Horse Temple (Pai Ma Ssu) was the first Buddhist temple built in the time of Emperor Ming Ti (A.D. 58-75). On the Lungmen mountain outside the city were carved thousands of Buddhas and other Buddhist images.

(e) HSINYANG, railway city in southern Honan, is a strategic point. In

areas south of the city there are several mountain passes where many battles were fought.

(f) NANYANG, southwestern Honan, is a marketing center. Highways connect the city with Shensi and Hupeh.

HOPEI

Area: 140,253 sq. km.
Population: 28,719,057 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 132
Preparatory *hsien:* 2
Special Municipalities: Peiping and Tientsin
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Paoting

(1) *Topography.* Hopei lies in the North China Plain, but its northwestern part is rather mountainous. The mountains—the Sungling, Yenshan, Wutai, and Taihang, all belong to the Yinshan system.

There are five main rivers, namely, the Pai, Yungting, Taching, and Huto and the Grand Canal, which all meet at Tientsin as Kuho or Haiho and pour into the Pohai (Gulf of Chihli) at Takukou.

(2) *Climate.* Hopei has a continental climate, a hot summer and a cold winter, but it is comparatively mild along the coast.

(3) *Agriculture.* Hopei produces large quantities of wheat, kaoliang, corn, millet, cotton and fruits. Like other north China provinces, it produces little rice.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* It is rich in minerals. The Kailan, Mentoukou and Tsingsing coal mines are important sources of fuel not only to north China but to cities like Shanghai and Nanking as well. The Kailan mines alone used to yield over 5-million tons of coal a year. Salt is also abundant.

Tientsin is a seaport and an industrial city, where cotton and flour mills and small chemical industries can be found. Handicrafts include carpets, rugs and porcelain.

(5) *Communications.* Railways include the Peiping - Hankow, Peiping - Liaoning, Peiping-Wuiyuan, Tientsin-Pukow, Chengting - Taiyuan, Peiping - Jehol, and Shihchiachwang-Tehsien lines. There are about 2,500 km. of highways. Ocean liners call at Tientsin, and steamship navigation is well developed along all the inland rivers. Peiping and Tientsin are the two important airline stations in north China.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) PEIPING (formerly known as Peking) is China's cultural center and the most important political center in north China. It was the capital of the Yuan, Ming and Ching (Manchu) dynasties and the site of the Chinese Government before the National Government chose Nanking as the capital. Peiping is known for its historical monuments and spots such as the Imperial Palaces and the Temple of Heaven. It is the junction of the Peiping - Hankow, Peiping-Mukden, Peiping-Chengteh, and the Peiping-Suiyuan railways.

(b) TIENTSIN, the largest port in north China, is situated at the confluence of five rivers in Hopei. Being the junction of the Peiping - Mukden and the Tientsin-Pukow railways, the city is the marketing center for all north China provinces and Mongolia and Sinkiang.

(c) PAOTING, the provincial capital, is 175 km. south of Peiping and 200 km. west of Tientsin. The three cities form a triangular area, which is both militarily and economically important. Flour mills and egg processing factories in Paoting are fairly large. The famous Paoting Military Academy was located here.

(d) SHIHCHIACHWANG (Shihmen, pop. 217,327—June, 1948), junction of the Peiping-Hankow and Chengting-Taiyuan railways, is an industrial town with cotton mills and glass works.

(e) TAKU and TANGKU, on the south and north banks of the Kuho (river), respectively, constitute the gateway to Tientsin and Peiping. A large harbor is under construction at Tangku.

(f) CHINWANGTAO, southwest of Shanhaikwan, is an ice-free harbor in north China, being the principal outlet of the Kailan coal mines. Peitaiho, summer resort, is southwest of Chinwangtao.

(g) TANGSHAN in northeastern Hopei is an industrial town.

(h) SHANHAIKWAN (Linyu), railway town in the northeastern corner of Hopei, is the starting point of the Great Wall.

HSINGAN

Area: 278,437 sq. km.
Population: 327,563 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 7
No. of Mongolian Banners: 11
Municipality: 1
Capital: Hailar

(1) *Topography.* The Great Hsingan and Ilihuli mountains are the chief mountain ranges. The Great Hsingan range begins on the borders of Jehol and Chahar provinces and crosses the entire state, the province deriving its name from these mountains. It attains an average height of between 1,630 and 1,830 m.; its principal peaks are the Wutewentu (2,030 m.), the Great Hsingan and the Hukeshan. After crossing into Heilungkiang province, it becomes known as the Ilihuli mountains.

The Amur river, known to the Chinese as the Heilungkiang, or Black Dragon river, begins in the mountains of Outer Mongolia, and entering this province near Lupin (Manchuli), forms a portion of the boundary with the Soviet Union.

(2) *Climate.* Of all the provinces of the northeast, Hsingan has the most unfavorable climate, being extremely cold and arid. The temperature ranges from 40 degrees F. below zero in the winter to about 96 degrees F. in the summer. Annual rainfall measures hardly 300 mm.

(3) *People.* The population is largely Mongol, with a scattering of Chinese and Manchus. In the prairies west of the Hsingan mountains live a minority group of Solons, who live by hunting and are noted for their fierce fighting qualities.

(4) *Agriculture.* On the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains are some arable areas planted to corn, millet, wheat and potato, and large uncultivated tracts suitable for agriculture. The Great Hsingan forests, covering an estimated average of 34-million acres with 55-billion cubic feet of virgin timber, constitute the largest forest area in all China. The timberlands along the western portion of the Chinese Changchun railway extend 2,500,000 acres and has a reserve of 5-billion cubic feet of timber.

Pasturing is by far the most important occupation. On the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains, about 15,000 head of cattle are produced each year; while on the western slopes large numbers of horses are herded. Practically all of the Mongol people are engaged in the grazing of these animals.

(5) *Minerals.* The coal fields of Chalainor, with a reserve of 3,980-million tons and an annual production of 139,000 tons, are the most important source of coal in this province, supplying the needs of the Chinese Changchun railway as well as those of Nunkiang province.

Gold mines in the vicinity of Shihwei are also important mineral resources, though they have not been sufficiently developed, due to communications difficulties.

(6) *Communications.* There are only two railway lines, the Chinese Changchun railway (western section) and the Taoan-Dulur line, with a combined length of 640 km. within the province.

Highway communications in the Mongol areas are centered at Hailar. Numerous roads also exist in the south. The Amur river within this province is only suitable for small craft, hence, because of the long distances to be covered, it is not very serviceable.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) HAILAR (Hulun), the provincial capital, is a railway town of the south shore of the Hailar river. As Hsingan is largely undeveloped virgin territory, pastoral life generally prevails. Hailar is, therefore, a trading center chiefly for cattle, sheep and animal products.

(b) LUPIN (Manchuli), starting point of the Chinese Changchun railway which is linked with the Soviet railway system in Siberia, is a trading center for the northeast, Russia and Outer Mongolia.

HUNAN

Area: 204,771 sq. km.
Population: 25,557,926 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 77
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Changsha

(1) *Topography.* Hunan means "South of the Lake" (Tungting). It is largely a stretch of flatland in the north but becomes more and more hilly toward the south. The mountains in Hunan are the Nanling, Hengshan, Hsuehfeng and Wuling ranges. The Nanling range runs along the borders of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan and Kiangsi. The 1,300-m. Hengshan in central Hunan is considered one of China's five sacred mountains.

There are five important rivers in Hunan—the Yangtze, Hsiang, Tze, Yuan and Li rivers. The 3,750-sq.-km. Tungting lake is in the northern part of the province.

(2) *Climate.* The climate in Hunan is generally mild, especially in districts around the lake. The southern part enjoys almost sub-tropical climate.

(3) *People.* Some Miaos are found in western Hunan and some Yaos in southern Hunan.

(4) *Agriculture.* Hunan is known as China's "rice bowl." The grain is produced in large quantities in the Tungting lake areas and along the river valleys. Other agricultural products include beans, tobacco, cotton, and tea. There are also many natural forests.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Hunan used to produce over 80 percent of the world's antimony. The main producing centers are Hsinhwa, Yiyang, and Shaoyang. Coal is found in Leiyang, Ichang, Hsianghsiang, Hsiangtan, Shaoyang, Chiyang, and Hengshan. Iron is produced in Anhwa, Ninghwa, Hsinhwa, Yiyang, Shaoyang, and Yunghsing. Gold, tin, copper, zinc, tungsten, and mercury are mined in Hunan.

Small factories are located in Changsha, Changteh and Hengyang. Famous Hunan handicrafts include embroidery, linen, porcelain, and paper. Hunan also produces a considerable quantity of tung oil.

(6) *Communications.* Hunan has three railways, namely, the Canton-Hankow, Pinghsiang - Chuchow, Hunan - Kwangsi-Kweichow lines. The Hunan - Kwangsi-Kweichow railway now reaches as far as Tuyun in southern Kweichow and passes through Kweilin and Liuchow in Kwangsi province.

Hunan has about 3,500 km. of highways. The province is famous for its well-built highways which extend to all the neighboring provinces.

Steamship navigation has been well developed on the various rivers and on Tungting lake.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CHANGSHA (Pop. 421,616—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is a political as well as commercial center. Important commodities concentrated here include rice, tea, tung oil, porcelain and minerals. Hunan embroidery, famous throughout the country, is also marketed here. During the Sino-Japanese war, the environs of Changsha were the scene of four major battles.

(b) YOYANG, at the mouth of the Tungting lake, is a town of considerable military importance and is situated in the northern part of the province. It is on the Canton-Hankow railway.

(c) CHANGTEH, commercial town on the Yuan river in western Hunan, is a marketing center for goods from Kweichow and eastern Szechwan. Tung oil is concentrated here in large quantities.

(d) HENGYANG, in central Hunan, is the province's communication center, being the junction of the Canton-Hankow and Hunan-Kwangsi railways and the Hsiang, Cheng and Lei rivers. Shuikowshan, in the county of Changning, south of Hengyang, is one of China's largest tin and zinc producing centers. North of Hangyang is Hengshan, one of China's five sacred mountains.

(e) HSINHWA, railway town in western Hunan, is rich in antimony, tin and iron. The antimony producing area is called Hsikwangshan (Tin Mine Mountain), 20 km. east of the town of Hsinhwa, which has the world's largest antimony deposits.

HUPEH

Area: 168,229 sq. km.
Population: 20,975,559 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 70
Special Municipality: Hankow
Capital: Wuchang

(1) *Topography.* Hupeh, which means "North of the Lake" (Tungting), is mountainous in the southwest but flat in the central part. The Han river basin, in the central-northwest, is the province's richest area.

There are four principal mountain ranges: (a) the Tapieh range in the northern part of the province along the Honan and Anhwei borders, (b) the King range, running from Szechwan into the northwest, and dividing the Yangtze and Han rivers, (c) the Wuling range, running from Kweichow and Szechwan and spanning the western part of Hupeh, and (d) the Mufu range, which runs along the Hupeh-Kiangsi border.

The two most important rivers are the Yangtze and Han rivers. The Han river has its source in Shensi, and enters Hupeh at its northwestern corner and pours into the Yangtze at Hankow which literally means "mouth of the Han river."

There are many lakes in central Hupeh.

(2) *Climate.* Seasonal changes are distinct in this province with a hot, humid summer and a cold winter. Rainfall is abundant.

(3) *Agriculture.* Hupeh produces large quantities of rice, cotton, wheat, beans and jute. There are also considerable quantities of tea, silk and tung oil.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* More than 500,000 tons of iron are produced annually in Tayeh in eastern Hupeh. Coal deposits are found in Tayeh, Yanghsing, Tsungyang and Itu. There are also copper mines in the southeastern part of the province.

Wuchang, Hankow and Hanyang are the famous tri-cities of central China. There are many cotton and flour mills, tea factories, chemical works, and iron and steel foundries in Hankow and Hanyang. Handicrafts thrive in all parts of the province. The iron works and arsenal in Hanyang were among the largest in China before the war.

(5) *Communications.* The Peiping-Hankow and Canton-Hankow lines end on both banks of the Yangtze. Hankow thus occupies an important position in domestic trade, as it is also the center of river navigation on the Yangtze. Ocean-going steamers can dock in Hankow in the summer months. Small steamers call at Hankow from points along the Han river, from Szechwan, along the Yangtze, and from Hunan through the Hsiang river and the Tungting lake.

Hupeh has more than 4,000 km. of highways which link all neighboring provinces.

There are three air stations in Hupeh—namely, Hankow, Shasi and Ichang.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) WUCHANG (Pop. 174,367—June, 1948) is the provincial capital. It was here that the Revolution of 1911 broke out which led to the founding of the Republic of China in 1912. The National Wuhan University is located here.

(b) HANKOW (Pop. 721,598—June, 1948), known as the "Chicago of the East," is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is the most important commercial city in central China. Its principal exports are cotton, iron, tung oil, eggs, and tea.

(c) HANYANG, opposite Hankow across the Han river, is an industrial city, noted formerly for its arsenal and iron works.

(d) HSIANGYANG, is a historic city on the Han river located in the northwest. Fanchang across the river is a commercial town.

(e) LAOHOKOW, commercial town in northwestern Hupeh on the Han river, is a marketing center for northern Hupeh, southwestern Honan and southern Shensi.

(f) ICHANG, river port in western Hupeh, is a commercial link between Szechwan and central China.

(g) SHASI, commercial town west of Hankow, is a marketing center in western Hupeh.

JEHOL

Area: 179,982 sq. km.
Population: 6,196,974 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 20
No. of Mongolian Banners: 20
Capital: Chengteh

(1) *Topography.* Jehol is a highland with mountains and small basins which are good for cultivation. Its northeastern part belongs to the Liao river valley.

Its main mountain ranges are the Hsinganling, Linwushan, Chilaotushan, and Sungling. The Hsinganling range traverses the borders of Chahar, Jehol and Hsingan provinces.

The principal water routes are the Liao, Luan and Je rivers.

(2) *Climate.* Jehol has a climate similar to that of Chahar, with a very severe winter.

(3) *People.* Of its total population, from 20 to 30 percent are Mongols. There are some Tibetans and Manchus living in the Chengteh area and in the lamaseries. (For more details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The cultivated land in Jehol is larger than that in Chahar, with wheat, barley, kaoliang, corn and beans as the main crops. There are also many forests. As in Chahar, the Mongols in this province make their living by raising cattle.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Jehol is rich in gold and silver which are mined by native methods. The largest coal mine is in Peipiao, north of Chengteh. Industry is yet to be developed. The principal handcrafts are woolen and animal products.

(6) *Communications.* Jehol has two railways, namely, the Peiping-Jehol and Chinhsien-Chengteh lines. There are about 2,500 km. of highways, linking the province with Hopei, Liaoning, Liaopei and Chahar.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CHENGTEH, the provincial capital, is also a commercial and communication center. The late Manchu dynasty's summer palace is located here.

(b) PINGCHUAN, railway town outside Hsifengkow, is of great strategical importance.

(c) CHAOYANG, railway town, is a trading and communication center between Jehol and the northeastern provinces. Peipiao, the coal producing town, is north of Chaoyang.

KANSU

Area: 391,506 sq. km.
Population: 7,090,517 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 69
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 2
Municipality: 1
Capital: Lanchow

(1) *Topography.* Kansu is in the upper reaches of the Yellow river and its capital Lanchow is the geographical center of the country. The province is traversed by the Chilien, Chinling and Min ranges and has a rather high altitude. The northwestern part is good for grazing only. The agricultural regions are generally in the Lanchow and Tienshui areas in the southeast.

The rivers include the Yellow, Wei, Ching, and Chialing.

(2) *Climate.* The province has a continental climate, with a hot summer and a severe winter. The summer temperature sometimes runs as high as 100 degrees F. Rainfall is light.

(3) *People.* Mohammendans live in the northwestern part of the province. The aborigines adopt lamaism as their religion. The Tibetans live mostly in the southern part of the province.

(4) *Agriculture.* Cultivable land in Kansu is limited. Among the crops are

wheat, kaoliang, corn and beans. There are small quantities of rice and tea. The acreage of natural forests is large, especially in the Liupanshan, Sichunshan and Minshan areas.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* China's largest oil fields are at Yumen in western Kansu. They are under the management of the National Resources Commission. Oil recently was also discovered near Lanchow. Other minerals found in this province are iron, coal, and gold.

Industries in Kansu include woolen and chemical works. Kansu's wool is of a fine quality.

(6) *Communications.* The Lunghai railway, which now stops at Tienshui in southern Kansu, is to be extended first to Lanchow and eventually to Hami, Tihwa and Ili in Sinkiang.

Kansu has 6,500 km. of highways. The most important line is the Lanchow-Tihwa highway. Other lines connect the province with Shensi, Szechwan, Chinghai, and Ningsia. Lanchow is also an important stopover point on air lines linking the interior with Sinkiang.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) LANCHOW (Pop. 156,468—June, 1948), the provincial capital, on the south bank of the Yellow river, is a trading center for wool, cotton piecegoods, and other commodities. It holds the key to communications in the northwestern provinces of Kansu, Sinkiang, Chinghai, and Ningsia.

(b) TIENSHUI, southeastern Kansu, at present the terminus of the Lunghai railway, is both an agricultural and industrial center.

(c) KIAYUKWAN, on the Lanchow-Tihwa highway, marks the end of the Great Wall.

(d) TUNHWANG, in northwestern Kansu, is famous for its ancient caves in which are found stone Buddhas and murals as well as handcopied books of the Tang and the Five Dynasties.

(e) SIAHO (Labrang), southwest of Lanchow, is a large lamaist center. The Labrang Monastery, largest in the province, controls 108 small lamaseries in the area, which boasts a total of 300,000 lamas.

KIANGSI

Area: 165,258 sq. km.
Population: 12,506,912 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 81
Municipality: 1
Capital: Nanchang

(1) *Topography.* Kiangsi is located in central China. The Yangtze river runs eastward through its northern section and the Kan river northward through the central part, emptying into the Poyang lake, which serves as a reservoir for the Yangtze. The lake area is 2,780 sq. km.

Mountain ranges in Kiangsi, such as the Tayuling, Kiulienshan, Wuyishan, and Hwaiyushan, run mostly from the southwest to the northeast. There are several other ranges in western Kiangsi. Among them is the Mufu range which runs along the Hupeh-Kiangsi border. Its highest peak is called Lushan, where the famous summer resort, Kuling, is located.

(2) *Climate.* Kiangsi climate is generally mild. Rainfall is abundant in April and May. Beginning early in autumn it is fairly dry.

(3) *Agriculture.* Kiangsi is one of China's chief rice-producing areas, especially around the Poyang lake and in the Kan river valley. Other important crops include tea grown in Hsiushui, Wuning and Kian; jute in Wantsai, Ihwang and Juikin; tobacco in Juikin, Kwangfeng and Yushan; beans and kaoliang in the Kan valley; sugar cane in Kanhsien, Tunghsiang, Loping, and Poyang; and citrus fruits in Nanfeng and Lingchwan. Timber is also important product.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Kiangsi is famous for its tungsten, which at one time constituted 60 percent of the world's total production. Tungsten deposits are found in Tayu, Anyuan, Huichang, Kanhsien, Lungnan, Tsungyi and Shangyu. Many places in Kiangsi produce coal. Pinghsiang alone has a daily production of 2,400 tons. Kiukiang and Juichang produce iron. There are also deposits of gold, copper, tin and manganese.

The handicrafts are more important than modern industries. The most famous is the porcelain of Kintehchen (Fowliang) in northeastern Kiangsi. Small chemical industries are found in Nanchang, Kiukiang and Kanhsien.

(5) *Communications.* There are three railways in this province, namely, the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway which starts from Hangchow and terminates at Pinghsiang passing through Nanchang; the Nanchang-Kiukiang railway, and the Pinghsiang-Chuchow railway, which links the Chekiang-Kiangsi and Canton-Hankow lines. The Wuhu-Kweichih section of the Nanking-Kweichih railway is still under construction.

Highways total about 7,000 km. The province is linked with all neighboring provinces by motor roads.

River communications are well-developed. Steamboats ply the Yangtze, the Poyang lake and most of the rivers.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) NANCHANG (Pop. 203,101—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is at the junction of the Chekiang-Kiangsi, and Nanchang-Kiukiang railways on the right bank of the Kan river. It is the marketing center for rice, porcelain, linen, timber, paper, and tobacco.

(b) KIUKIANG, river port, is noted for its tea, rice and porcelain. Kuling is 11 km. south of the city.

(c) KANHSIEN, in southern Kiangsi, is important both militarily and economically.

(d) PINGHSIANG, railway town in western Kiangsi, is one of the largest coal-producing centers in China. The coal mine is nine km. east of the town.

(e) KINGTEHCHEN, in northeastern Kiangsi, is China's porcelain-producing center.

(f) TAYU, in southern Kiangsi, is the center of tungsten production.

KIANGSU

Area: 108,314 sq. km.
Population: 36,080,123 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 61
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 1
Special Municipalities: Nanking and Shanghai
Capital: Chinkiang

(1) *Topography.* Except for some hilly regions in the northern part of the province near Anhwei and the Maoshan range along the southwestern border near Chekiang and Anhwei, Kiangsu is almost entirely a plain. The highest mountain in the province is the 642-m. Yantishan near Lienyun. Other hills include Chungshan and Chihsiashan near Nanking and Chinshan and Chiaoshan near Chinkiang, which are all offshoots of the Maoshan range.

Important rivers in Kiangsu include the Yangtze, the Grand Canal, the Hwai and the Whangpoo. The Yangtze enters Kiangsu in an area southwest of Nanking and empties into the East China Sea at Woosung near Shanghai. Lakes, notably Taihu and Hungtse, and canals cover many parts of the province. Taihu covers an area of 3,600 sq. km. which extend into Chekiang province. Nanking is in the western part of the province.

(2) *Climate.* Kiangsu has an oceanic climate. Its temperature is seldom over 90 degrees F. in the summer or below 20 degrees F. in the winter. Rainfall is abundant in June and July. Southeasterly wind prevails in the summer and northwesterly wind in the winter. Continental climate prevails in the Hsuchow area in the northwestern part of the province.

(3) *Density of Population.* One of China's richest provinces, Kiangsu has the highest population density—about 350 persons per sq. km.—of all the provinces.

(4) *Agriculture and Fishery.* The most important agricultural products in Kiangsu are rice, cotton and silk. Kiangsu ranks first in China's cotton production and second in silk industry. Rice-producing centers are Nanhui, Nantung, Tsungming, Changshu, Taitsang, and Kiating. Wusih is its largest rice marketing center. The silk industry is concentrated in the Taihu (lake) area.

Fishery products are abundant. The Chengsze islands along the southern coast of Kiangsu are one of the nation's largest fishing areas.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Though Kiangsu is not rich in mineral deposits, it has good coal mines in Hsuchow and Hsiaoshan. Salt beds in the northern part of Kiangsu are an important source of supply to neighboring provinces.

Industrially Kiangsu is fairly well developed. There are many cotton and flour mills in Wusih and Nantung. The chemical works at Luho and the cement plant at Lungtan are among the best and largest in China. Electrical manufacturing and light chemical industries dot the province. Among its best-known handicrafts are the cotton cloth of Nantung and Tsungming, silk piecegoods of Nanking and Soochow, embroidery of Soochow, and pottery of Ihing.

(6) *Communications.* Important railways in Kiangsu or traversing Kiangsu are: (a) Nanking-Shanghai railway, (b) Shanghai-Hangchow railway, (c) Tientsin-Pukow railway, which has its terminus at Pukow, opposite Nanking, (d) Lunghai railway, which has its terminus at Lienyun harbor in eastern Kiangsu, and (e) Nanking-Wuhu railway, which begins at Nanking, and ends at Wuhu in Anhwei. Before the war it extended to Kweichih in Kiangsi on the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway. Traffic on the Wuhu-Kweichih section has not yet been reopened.

About 4,000 km. of highways have been built in Kiangsu. The most important artery is the Nanking-Shanghai-Hanchow stretch.

Kiangsu is a coastal province with Shanghai as its navigation center. Ocean liners call at Shanghai from all parts of the world. Steamships connect Kiangsu with both north and south China. Along the Yangtze, ships go up to Hankow and Chungking. The province has an intricate system of navigable canals and lakes.

Airlines link Shanghai and Nanking with Peiping, Chungking, Canton, Hongkong and Taiwan.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) NANKING, China's national capital, is situated in the southwestern corner of Kiangsu. It was the capital of several southern dynasties since the period of the Three Kingdoms. Nanking was first made the capital of the Republic by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1912 when he became China's first provisional president. It was again designated the national capital in 1927 by the National Government. Located on the south shore of the Yangtze river, Nanking is linked with Shanghai by the Nanking-Shanghai railway, and with Tientsin and Peiping by the Tsientsin-Pukow railway. Among the famous historical spots are the tombs of the Ming emperors and Dr. Sun Yat-sen's mausoleum. (Since December, 1949, Taipeh in Taiwan provinces has been the provisional capital of China.)

(b) SHANGHAI, located on the Whangpoo river, is China's largest seaport and the world's fourth largest city. Before World War II, the main business section of the city was under the control of the International Settlement and the French Concession. Since V-J Day, China took over the administration of the entire city. All goods from central and western China are concentrated here via the Yangtze river. Coastal shipping links the city with both north and south China, and ocean liners come to Shanghai from all parts of the world.

(c) CHINKIANG, the provincial capital, is located south of the Yangtze near the confluence of the river and the Grand Canal. It is on the Nanking-Shanghai railway.

(d) WUSIH, railway city west of Shanghai, is an important industrial and marketing center of silk, rice, flour, cotton and cotton piecegoods, and cooking oil. The city is on the bank of the Taihu (lake).

(e) SOOCHOW (Wuhsien), on the Nanking-Shanghai railway to the west of Shanghai, is famous for its scenery and embroidery.

(f) KIANGYIN, important fort on the Yangtze river.

(g) NANTUNG, industrial city north of the Yangtze river.

(h) HSUCHOW, junction of the Tientsin-Pukow and Lunghai railways in northern Kiangsu, is of great strategic importance. It is one of the two municipalities under the provincial government, the other being Lienyun.

(i) LIENYUN, the terminus of the Lunghai railway, is a harbor on the eastern Kiangsu coast.

KIRIN

Area: 72,676 sq. km.
Population: 6,465,449 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 18
No. of Mongolian Banner: 1
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Kirin

(1) *Topography.* Three mountain ranges are found in this province, two of them offshoots of the Changpai mountains. Laoyehling is on the border of Sungkiang province. Hsiaopaishan, also running close to the Sungkiang border, divides the waters of the Mutankiang and the Sungari river. Its highest peak rises to 1,950 m. The Hata mountains in the southwest continue into Liaopei province. Yungchi and Changchun, the two important metropolises, are both located near the Hata mountain highlands.

The province is watered almost entirely by the Sungari river and its tributaries. The Sungari, itself the largest tributary of the Amur river, originates in the northern slope of Paitoushan near Fusung in Antung province, cuts northward and enters Sungkiang province at Harbin. The Mutankiang, beginning in the Hsiaopaishan, finds its way into the Sungari after crossing into Sungkiang province.

(2) *Climate.* The mean temperature is somewhat lower than that of Liaoning province, ranging from 72 degrees F. in the summer to about three degrees F. in the winter, with the yearly average around 39 degrees F. Rainfall is fairly abundant, amounting to about 725 mm. for the year, most of it occurring in the months of July and August. The Sungari is frozen for about five months each year, from October through February.

(3) *Agriculture.* Principal agricultural products are soybean and millet, the two most important crops of the province; wheat, kaoliang, rice, hemp, corn and tobacco. Forests in the upper Sungari regions cover an estimated area of 3,500,000 acres; about half of which lie within Kirin, four-tenths in Antung province, and one-tenth in Sungkiang province.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Very few mineral deposits have been found, among which may be mentioned the coal fields at Chiaoho, Yungchi, and Chiutai; gold mines at Huatien and Panshih; and a small amount of copper, lead and iron in the Panshih region.

Two hydro-electric power plants were completed under the Japanese regime; namely, the Fengman and Hungshihchetze systems, with a total capacity of 1,020,000 kws. They have so far provided the bulk of the power for the electrically equipped industries found in the northeastern provinces. The only important industrial center is Changchun, where factories are located for the manufacture of soybean oil, woolen textiles, paper, hemp and chemical products, mostly for local consumption.

(5) *Communications.* The following railway lines, totalling 1,170 km., serve Kirin:

Chinese Changchun railway: trunk line running from Kungchuling in Liaopei province, through Changchun, Tehwei, and Shuangcheng, to Harbin;

Changpai Line: from Changchun to Taoan in Laiopei province;

Yungchi-Changchun Line: the shortest among the principal railway lines of the northeast;

Yungchi-Hailing Line: from Yungchi to Hailung in Antung province.

Yungchi-Tumenkiang Line: from Yungchi to Yenchi and the Tumenkiang river in Sungkiang province, one of the important lines developed by the Japanese for their exploitation of the northeast: and

Lafa-Harbin Line.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) KIRIN (Yungchi), the provincial capital, on the western shore of the Sungari river, is both a political and railway center. Commodities from the Sungari river valley are collected here.

(b) CHANGCHUN, the political and economic center for the entire northwest, was the capital of the puppet state of "Manchukuo" during the Japanese occupation. Later, it was the provisional headquarters of the President of the Republic of China after the territory was recovered at the end of the war. The Chinese Changchun railway maintains its administration here. The area around Changchun is flat and has the best agricultural land in the northeast. Commercially, commodities for all the nine provinces of Manchuria are marketed here.

KWANGSI

Area: 218,932 sq. km.
Population: 14,636,337 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 99
Municipality: 1
Capital: Kweilin

(1) *Topography.* Kwangsi's northwestern section is mountainous and is part of the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau, but the province is comparatively flat in the southeast.

The main mountain ranges are branches of the Wuling of Yunnan, the Koulou range from Indo-China, the Fenghuang range of Kweichow, and the Tuyang range of Yunnan. Important rivers include the Yu, Liu and Kwei.

(2) *Climate.* There is a marked difference in climate between the north and the south. It is almost tropical in the south but comparatively mild in the north. Fog and rain prevail between May and September. It is rather cold in the winter.

(3) *People.* The aborigines include Yaos and Tungs who live in all parts of the province, particularly in the area of Yaoshan, an offshoot of the Fenghuang range.

(4) *Agriculture.* Rice is the main crop. Various kinds of fruits are produced in the southern part of the province. There are numerous forests.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Tin, zinc, silver, antimony and coal are among the minerals produced. Chemical works and machine industries are found in Kweilin, Wuchow, and Liuchow.

(6) *Communications.* The major railway in Kwangsi is the Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow line. Of the Kwangsi-Indo-China railway, thus far only the Liuchow-Laipin section has been opened to traffic.

Highways total 5,650 km. Steamboats can ply on the West and Kwei rivers. Kweilin and Wuchow are the two air stations in the province.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KWEILIN (Pop. 142,202—June 1948), the provincial capital, is famous for its scenic beauty. The most beautiful spot is Yangso, south of Kweilin. Kweilin is a marketing town for goods from Hunan and Kwangtung. Rice for Kwangtung is also shipped here.

(b) NANNING (Yungning), the former provincial capital, is now the marketing center in southern Kwangsi.

(c) WUCHOW, on the Kwangtung-Kwangsi border, is situated at the confluence of the Hsun and Kwei rivers, and is the trading center for the two provinces. Its position in the West river valley is comparable to that of Hankow in the Yangtze valley.

(d) LIUCHOW, railway city in central Kwangsi, is a trading center for rice, hide, tung oil, timber and medicinal herbs.

KWANGTUNG

Area: 218,511 sq. km.
Population: 27,209,968 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 99
Special Municipality: Canton
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Canton

(1) *Topography.* Kwangtung is China's southernmost coastal province. Its

mountains belong to the Nanling range. They may be divided into: (a) the Wuling range, (b) the Kiulien range, which runs along the Kwangtung-Kiangsi border and is the dividing line between central and south China, (c) the Lofou range, which runs between the East and North rivers, (d) the Lienhua range, which runs south of the Mei river, (e) the Koulou range, which originates in Indo-China and extends to Kwangtung and Kwangsi, (f) the Yunwu range, which covers areas south of the West river, and (g) the Limu range, also known as the Five Finger Mountains, which covers the whole of Hainan island.

Kwangtung's largest tributary is the Pearl river, whose upper reaches are known as the East, West and North rivers.

Hainan island, with an area of 32,198 sq. km., is China's second largest island, next only to Taiwan in size. South of Hainan island is a group of small isles which form China's southernmost frontier.

(2) *Climate.* Kwangtung is close to the tropical zone and has a long summer and a short winter. The hottest months are July and August, but the highest temperature does not exceed 100 degrees F. Rainfall is abundant in April and May. Typhoons frequently sweep the coast in the summer.

(3) *People.* All the inhabitants of Kwangtung are Chinese except for some Miaos and Yaos in the mountains. On Hainan island, the aborigines are known as Lis. Miaos also live on the island.

(4) *Agriculture.* Kwangtung produces large quantities of fruits, tea, sugar cane and tobacco. It does not produce enough rice for local consumption.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Kwangtung produces small quantities of coal, iron, tungsten, tin, antimony, gold and salt.

It is famous for its handicrafts, such as embroidery, carving, and silk weaving. Modern industries are still in their initial stage. Among those already established are canning, chemical and textile factories in Canton, Swatow, Chaoan and Nanhai (Namhoi).

(6) *Communications.* There are four railways in Kwangtung: The Canton-Hankow, Canton-Kowloon, Hsinning, and Chaoan-Swatow lines.

Kwangtung has 14,516 km. of highways, the most extensive of the provinces. On Hainan island, a round-the-island highway has been completed.

Steamship navigation is well-developed along the Pearl river. Canton is linked with Hongkong both by rail and by water.

The China National Aviation Corporation maintains airfields at Canton and Swatow.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CANTON, the provincial capital, is a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is known as China's "Revolutionary Home," as Dr. Sun Yat-sen and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek directed their revolutionary activities here in the 1920's. It is the largest commercial port in south China.

(b) WHAMPOA (Hwangpu), 18 km. southeast of Canton, was chosen by Dr. Sun Yat-sen as the site for the construction of the largest harbor in south China. It was here that the backbone of the Chinese Revolutionary Army was trained in the 1920's. Humen Fort is to the east of Whampoa.

(c) CHUNGSHAN, formerly known as Hsiangshan, coastal city south of Canton, is the birthplace of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

(d) SWATOW, is a sea port and marketing outlet for eastern Kwangtung, southern Fukien, and eastern and southern Kiangsi.

(e) KUKONG (Shaokwan), railway city in northern Kwangtung, was the wartime provincial capital. It is a marketing center as well as a strategical point.

(f) CHANKIANG, formerly known as Kwangchowwan, was leased to France in 1898 and returned to China after the end of World War II. It is situated in the eastern part of the Leichow peninsula.

(8) *Hainan As a Province.* The Legislative Yuan, at its plenary session on September 14, 1948, adopted a resolution for the creation of Hainan island as a regular province. Provincial status for Hainan has been a topic of discussion for many years. On June 14, 1947, the Executive Yuan decided to make the island a special administrative area and at the same time established a Committee for the Creation of Hainan Province. Preparations were started for its formal inauguration as a regular province of China.

KWEICHOW

Area: 170,196 sq. km.
Population: 10,173,750 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 78
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 1
Municipality: 1
Capital: Kweiyang

(1) *Topography.* Kweichow is a mountainous province. Its ranges all belong to the Nanling system, its largest being the Miaoling. Its principal river is the Wu or Chien, which enters the Yangtze river in Szechwan province.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is mild. The temperature in the summer seldom exceeds 80 degrees F., and in the winter it is usually above 20 degrees F. But because of the high mountains and thick forests, it is often foggy and humid. Winter and spring are usually wet.

(3) *People.* Kweichow originally was inhabited by the Miaos. Now the Chinese constitute about 80 percent of its population.

(4) *Agriculture.* Kweichow is economically backward. There is a saying which describes its bad climate, rugged topography and poor economic conditions: "Hardly ever can you find three consecutive sunny days, three ounces of silver in one's pocket, or three feet of level ground."

Agriculturally, however, Kweichow is self-sufficient, because of its sparse population. The main crops are rice, wheat, corn, and sweet potatoes. There are many dense forests in the mountains.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* The province is rich in such minerals as coal, iron, copper, mercury and petroleum. But as yet it is not developed industrially. There are only a few small electrical manufacturing and chemical factories in Kweiyang, Tsunyi and Szenan. Kweichow, however, produces the best liquor in China, known as *Maotai.*

(6) *Communications.* The only railway is the Hunan - Kwangsi - Kweichow line which now reaches Tuyun in southern Kweichow from Liuchow in Kwangsi. In due course it will be extended to Kweiyang. There are about 3,000 km. of highways, which cross some of the most difficult mountains in China. Rivers in Kweichow are navigable by junks only.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KWEIYANG (Pop. 262,740—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is Kweichow's commercial center. It was a medical center during the war against Japan.

(b) TSUNYI, is northern Kweichow's gateway.

(c) ANSHUN links western Kweichow with Yunnan.

(d) TUNGJEN, in northeastern Kweichow, is the marketing center for mercury and tung oil.

LIAONING

Area: 68,303 sq. km.
Population: 10,007,204 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 22
Special Municipalities: Shenyang (Mukden) and Dairen
Municipalities: 4
Capital: Shenyang (Mukden)

(1) *Topography.* The province is traversed by the Chienshan or southern range of the Changpai mountains. The highest peak, at about 1,825 m., is located south of Liaoyang. The range here turns southward to form the backbone of the Liaotung peninsula. The Sungling mountains to the west constitute a natural boundary between Liaoning and Jehol.

The name of the province is derived from the Liao river, which has its source in Jehol and runs for 1,341 km. into the Pohai.

(2) *Climate.* Average annual temperature ranges from 39 to 50 degrees F. Mean summer temperature at Shenyang is about 75 degrees F.; mean winter temperature, ten degrees F. The Liao river is frozen from November through February. Annual rainfall is about 725 mm., June and July being the wettest months.

(3) *Agriculture and Fishery.* The most important crop is kaoliang, produced principally in the lower part of the Liao valley. The port of Newchwang was virtually founded on the shipping of kaoliang, which is in fact the major food crop of the entire northeast. Annual production exceeds 80,000 tons, about 80 percent of this is for local consumption. Other important products are soybean, millet, rice, corn, peanuts and cotton.

Fishing is carried on along the coasts of the Yellow Sea, the Pohai, and the Gulf of Liaotung by over 40,000 fishermen.

Annual output of salt is 235,000 tons, excluding that of the Laotung peninsula

Locality	Coal Deposit (in tons)	Type	Age	Annual Output (in tons)
Fushun............	950,000,000	Lignite	Tertiary	8,000,000
Fuhsien............	6,930,000	Anthracite	Triasic	200,000
Yentai............	40,000,000	Anthracite	Triasic	582,000
Penchi............	220,000,000	Bituminous	Triasic	40,000
Tienshihfukou.........	167,000,000	Anthracite	Triasic	8,000
Niuhsintai..........	30,000,000	Anthracite	Triasic	1,000

region, which can produce another 200,000 tons a year. Salt beds in Yingkai, Fuhsien, Hsingsui, Chinhsien, Panshan and Chwangho occupy a total area of some 70,000 acres.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Coal production in Liaoning ranks first in China. The deposits are found in the branches of the Chienshan range and in the valleys of the Hunho and Taitzeho. The following is a summary of the principal deposits and their annual output:

In the production of iron, this province also ranks first in China. The deposits, which include both igneous and sedimentary ores, are found as follows:

Locality	Iron Ore Deposit (in tons)	Percentage of Iron
Anshan	36,000,000	40
Miaoerkou	80,000,000	65
Kungchangling	44,460,000	35
Tuimienshan	37,810,000	35
Takushan	15,125,000	35
Yingtaoyuan	26,250,000	35
Wangchiapao	16,500,000	35
Kotishan	2,050,000	32

Manganese is produced at Heisungling in Hsingcheng. Gold is found at Tsaihopao in Tiehling, Hsingcheng, Suichung, Chwangho, Haicheng, Penchi, and Hsiuyen; alum in Penchi and Yentai; white marble and kaolin clay (containing 46 percent magnesium) in Haicheng; and othe fire-resisting types of clay amounting to 30-million tons in Liaoyang, Yentai and Fuhsien.

Because of these rich deposits of coal and iron, Shenyang, Fushun, Penchi and Anshan already have become important centers for the heavy industries. Factories for machines, chemicals, munitions, steel, cement, vegetable oils and flour are located mostly at Shenyang. Yingkow is noted for its distilleries and earthenware factories, as well as for its manufacture of silk and sugar.

(5) *Communications.* The province is served by the following principal railway lines, of which over 1,000 km. lie within its boundaries:

- Changchun-Dairen
- Shenyang-Antung
- Peiping-Mukden
- Shenyang-Hailung
- Tahushan-Tungliao
- Chinchow-Kupeikow

A network of highways connects the principal cities—Shenyang in the north and Dairen in the south. The Liao river is navigable by boat all the way below Tiehling, and from the mouth of the Taitezeho to Yingkow by small steamers. The principal sea ports are Dairen, Yingkow and Hulutao, the last-named being the only ice-free port during the winter.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) SHENYANG (Mukden), the provincial capital, is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is the province's political, military, economic and cultural center.

(b) LIAOYANG, railway city south of Mukden, is an industrial and agricultural center, its chief products being coal and iron, soybean, wheat and cotton. The Anshan mines are within the county.

(c) YINGKOW, seaport at the mouth of the Liao river, exports soy bean and its by-products, and medicinal herbs.

(d) PORT ARTHUR is a naval base at the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula.

(e) DAIREN is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(f) HULUTAO, southeast of Chinhsien, is an ice-free harbor, the best along the Pohai coast.

(g) PENHSIHU, railway town southeast of Shenyang, is the province's iron-producing center. Coal is also abundant here.

(h) FUSHUN, northeast of Shenyang, is a coal town, having a deposit of nearly one billion tons.

LIAOPEI

Area: 121,624 sq. km.
Population: 4,627,841 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 18
No. of Mongolian Banners: 6
Municipality: 1
Capital: Liaoyuan

(1) *Topography.* The Hata mountains lie across the southeastern part of the province. Never rising more than 1,000 m., they constitute the highlands of the Pei-feng-Sifeng area, and form the watershed for the Yingma, Itung and Hweifa rivers.

The Liao river is the principal stream; its western branch beginning in Jehol and, flowing eastward through Tungliao and Liaoyuan, meets the eastern branch at Kuyushu. Thence the confluence turns southward and enters Liaoning in the vicinity of Chungku. The eastern or shorter branch of the Liao river originates in the Hata mountains of Peifeng.

(2) *Climate.* The climate here differs markedly with that of Liaoning. The southeastern part, however, enjoys a summer temperature of around 77 degrees F. and a winter temperature of about five degrees F. The northern part, subject to cold winds from Siberia, has below zero temperatures in the winter. The mean annual temperature for the whole province is about 39 degrees F. The Liao river is frozen for more than four months of the year. Rainfall amounts to about 750 mm. in the southeastern part, and less than half of that in the north.

(3) *Agriculture.* The chief agricultural products of the southeast are soybean and Kaoliang, the former mainly for export and the latter for local consumption. Hemp and corn are produced in the highlands of the Hata mountains; millet around Szepingkai; upland rice in Liaoyuan, Szeping and Shwanshan; and castor oil plant in Faku and Kangping. In the north some soybean and millet are raised around Taonan, though not enough to be self-sufficient.

Extensive pasture land is available for raising cattle, horses and sheep. While the herds are not as large as those in Hsingan province, the production of wool has already reached hopeful proportions.

(4) *Minerals.* Coal deposits at Peifeng, estimated at 270-million tons, have been mined by the semi-governmental Sian Coal and Iron Company at the rate of 200,000 tons a year, supplying this province and its neighbor, Antung, as well as the Shenyang-Hailung and Yungchi-Hailung railways. Iron deposits of unknown quantity exist in Sifeng and Kaiyuan. Natural soda is produced at Taonan and Liaoyuan.

(5) *Communications.* The following railways have a combined length of over 1,200 km., and are largely responsible for the development of the Mongol areas within the province: Szepinkai-Taonan, Liaoyuan-Tunglia, Taonan-Angangchi (an extension of the Szepingwai-Taonan line to Anganchi, just south of Tsitsihar, in Nunkiang province), Taonan-Dulur (to be extended to Hailar, on the east-west trunk line of the Chinese Changchun railway), Szepingkai-Meiho line (a connecting link between the Szepingkai-Taonan, Neiho-Chian, Yunchi-Hailung and Shenyang-Hailung lines, joining the latter at Shahokow), Tahushan-Tungliao (from Tahushan in Liaoning province to Tungliao), Changpai (from Changchun on the north-south trunk line of the Chinese railway, formerly South Manchurian, to Taonan) and the Chinese Changchun railway (crosses this province in the southeastern part from Chungku on the border of Liaoning province until it enters Kirin province northeast of Kungchuling).

Highways are few and scattered, the most important being the road connecting Itung in Kirin with Tiehling in Liaoning, crossing Liaopei in the southeastern corner. Other roads cross the pasture land of the Mongol areas in the north, touching Taonan, Tungliao and Faku in the northwestern, western, and southern portions respectively.

The Liao river is navigable to the larger barges below Tungkiangtze, above which point they move with difficulty during periods of flood. Until the development of the Chinese Changchun railway, Tungkiantze used to be an important river trading center, through which moved most of the exports.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) LIAOYUAN, the provincial capital, is a communication and trading center for the Chinese Mongols and Manchus. The main commodities are horses, furs and wool.

(b) SZEPINGKAI, junction of the Chinese Changchun and Szepingkai-Taonan railways, is now a trading point of cereals, timber, and other articles.

(c) TAONAN in northern Liaopei is another trading point for the Chinese Mongols and Manchus.

(d) TUNGLIAO in western Liaopei is a railway town where trading of animals, furs, and wool for the Mongols takes place.

NINGSIA

Area: 233,320 sq. km.
Population: 759,002 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 13
No. of Mongolian Banners: 3
Municipality: 1
Capital: Yinchwan

(1) *Topography.* Ningsia is a pastoral province, close to Outer Mongolia and is a part of the Mongolian plateau. The main mountain chain is the Holan or

Alashan range, whose highest peak is 3,600 m. The western region is a desert with, however, pastoral grounds.

Ningsia is watered by the Yellow river. Between Chungwei and Pinglo are many irrigation canals. There are also several lakes, the largest being Gashannor.

(2) *Climate.* Ningsia has a continental climate, with a hot summer and a bitter winter. In the desert, there is little or no rainfall.

(3) *People.* Chinese and Mohammedans live in the eastern and southern parts of the province, while the Mongols lead a nomadic life in the northwestern part. (For more details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The southeastern part of the province produces rice, wheat, barley, and kaoliang. Furs and hide from the west give Ningsia a large income every year.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Ningsia has an abundant supply of salt. There are also some coal deposits. There is hardly any modern industry, but handicrafts such as carpet-making are prosperous.

(6) *Communications.* There is no railway in Ningsia. Work on the projected Paotow-Ningsia line did not materialize because of the war. There are about 2,500 km. of highways. The Suiyuan-Sinkiang highway passes through Ningsia. The old trade roads connect it with Outer Mongolia and other provinces.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) YINCHWAN (Holan, Pop. 38,634—June, 1948), formerly known as Ningsia City, is now the provincial capital. Commodities concentrated here include sheep's wool, camel wool, hide and medicinal herbs.

(b) CHUNGWEI, on the north shore of the Yellow river, is an agricultural center, rich in rice, wheat, miscellaneous cereals, wool and hide. Coal is also produced here.

(c) TZEHU, a new preparatory *hsien,* is a Mongolian town and is a trading point for the Mongols and Chinese.

NUNKIANG

Area: 67,034 sq. km.
Population: 3,333,409 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 18
No. of Mongolian Banners: 2
Municipality: 1
Capital: Tsitsihar

(1) *Topography.* The entire province is a great alluvial plain, watered by the Sungari and Nonni rivers, except for a few small hilly areas close to the Hsingan mountains. The Sungari enters this province from Kirin at Sanchaho, where it receives the Nonni and flows along the borders of Kirin and Sungkiang, entering Hokiang at Mulan. This is the most important river in the northeast, both for navigation and irrigation. The land is particularly fertile along its banks. The Nonni, about 725 km. long and the principal tributary of the Sungari, begins in the Ilihulishan in the Hsingan mountains, and receives the waters of several streams before joining the Sungari at Sanchaho.

(2) *Climate.* This province is considerably colder than other northeastern regions, its temperature ranging from about 88 degrees F. in the summer to 22 degrees below zero F. in the winter, with a yearly mean at around 37 degrees F. Rainfall is more abundant in its eastern parts, where it reaches about 725 mm. for the year, as compared with 350 mm. for the grasslands in the west.

(3) *People.* Besides the assimilated races of Chinese and Manchus, other inhabitants are the various pastoral tribes of Mongols, as well as small numbers of Oronchons engaged in hunting on the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains.

(4) *Agriculture.* Nunkiang, noted for its variety and quantity of agricultural products, has been called the granary of the northeast. The principal crops are wheat in the Hulan area and in the region north of Tsitsihar; soybean in the south as well as in the region around Ningnien, to the northeast of Tsitsihar; kaoliang along the Sungari; corn in the vicinity of Hulan and Tsitsihar; rice in the lower reaches of the Nonni; and millet, though in lesser quantity than is produced in the provinces of Liaoning and Kirin.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Because there are no mountains, the mineral wealth of the province is either unknown or undeveloped. Natural soda is found near Shaochow and Anta, which may be utilized for the development of chemical industries.

Few industries are developed. These small enterprises include flour mills and vegetable oil plants, and distilleries and tanning shops in the Tsitsihar region.

(6) *Communications.* There are five railroads serving this province, the most important being the Chinese Changchun railway, the Taoan-Angangchi line, and the Hulan-Peian line.

The Chinese Changchun railway (western section) enters the province from Yalu in Hsingan province, crosses the Nonni river, and, passing through Angangchi, Anta, and Shaotung, reaches its terminus at Harbin;

Hulan-Peian line: From Hulan to Peian, the capital of Heilungkiang province, passing through the important agricultural area north of the Sungari, bringing its products to Harbin;

Taoan-Angangchi line: from Taoan in Liaopei province to Angangchi;

Tsitsihar - Peian line: from Tsitsihar northward through Ningnien to Peian in Heilungkiang province; and

Ningnien-Holungmen line: from Ningnien to Holungmen in Heilungkiang province.

Highways from Tsitsihar extend to Heilungkiang and Hsingan provinces, as well as to the lands of the Mongol tribes, while numerous roads are found crossing the plains in the eastern part of the province.

The Nonni river is navigable by small steamers all the way below Nuncheng. The Sungari is open to steam navigation both above and below Sanchaho.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) TSITSIHAR (Lungkiang), the provincial capital, is a railway junction on the Nun river. Trade with Russia and Outer Mongolia is partly concentrated here.

(b) HULAN, a railway town at the confluence of the Sungari and Hulan rivers, is the richest agricultural town in the province. It is known as the "Granary of the Northeast."

SHANSI

Area: 156,419 sq. km.
Population: 15,247,059 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 105
Municipality: 1
Capital: Taiyuan

(1) *Topography.* Shansi is mountainous. The mountains can be divided into the Wutai, Hengshan, Taihang, Taiyueh, Luliang, and Yunchung ranges. Wutaishan is a sacred Buddhist mountain.

Rivers include the Yellow, Fen, Hsin, Shangkan, Huto, and Chang. The Yellow river separates the province from Shensi in the west and, roughly, Honan in the south.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is continental, but it is not exceedingly hot in the summer. Rainfall is light.

(3) *Agriculture.* Agriculture does not thrive well. Only the Fen river valley land flourishes. There is an abundant supply of fruits, so Shansi liquor and wines are of good quality. There are many natural forests in the northern mountains.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Shansi is rich in coal deposits, which are found in the Fen river valley in the central part, the Pingting area in the east, the Tsincheng area in the south, and the Tatung area in the north. Large-scale mining has been going on for many years both under the auspices of the provincial government and as private enterprises. Shansi also has rich iron deposits. Salt is another resource.

Modern industries such as cotton mills and chemical works are located in Taiyuan, Tatung, and Yutzu.

(5) *Communications.* There are three railways in this province, namely, the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Chengting-Taiyuan and the Tatung-Puchow lines, the last two being narrow-gauged. There are about 3,200 km. of highways.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) TAIYUAN (Pop. 251,566—June, 1948), the provincial capital, in central Shansi, is a commercial center and such goods concentrated here as wheat and beans are transported mostly to Tientsin.

(b) TATUNG, railway city in northern Shansi, is a trading point for Mongolia and provinces outside the Great Wall.

(c) LINFEN, railway city in southern Shansi, was an ancient cultural center and is now a marketing town for that section.

SHANTUNG

Area: 146,736 sq. km.
Population: 38,865,254 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 108
Special Municipality: Tsingtao
Municipalities: 3
Capital: Tsinan

(1) *Topography.* Shantung is in the lower Yellow river valley, and its eastern part forms the Shantung peninsula. The Laoshan on the peninsula and the Taishan in the central and southern parts are the principal ranges in the province. The 1,500 m. Taishan is one of China's five sacred mountains.

The Yellow river, the Hsiaoching river and the Grand Canal are its principal inland waterways.

(2) *Climate.* The southeastern part of the province enjoys an oceanic climate, especially the Yellow Sea coast. The climate inland is continental in that it is hot in the summer and cold in the winter. There is more rainfall in the southeastern part.

(3) *Agriculture.* The main crops are wheat, kaoliang, corn, peanuts, and cotton. Shantung dates, peaches and pears are nationally famous.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* There are considerable deposits of iron, coal, and salt. Factories are located mainly in Tsingtao, Chefoo, Tsinan, and Chowtsun. Shantung silk is also popular in China.

(5) *Communications.* The two railways are the Tientsin - Pukow and the

Kiaochow-Tsinan systems. Shantung has 6,300 km. of highways.

The coastal navigation centers at Tsingtao and Chefoo link the province with Tientsin, Shanghai, Hongkong and Japan. Inland navigation is limited to wooden junks and small motor launches.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) TSINAN (Pop. 591,490—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is Shantung's economic, communication and military center. The Taming lake is one of its scenic attractions.

(b) TSINGTAO, a naval base, is situated on the Kiaochow bay. It is connected with the interior by the Kiaochow-Tsinan railway. It controls all Shantung's exports and imports. It is now a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(c) TAIAN, south of Tsinan, is an agricultural producing center. Taishan (mountain) is north of the city.

(d) CHUFU (Kufu), on the south bank of the Sze river, is the birthplace of Confucius, whose grave is located there. The place is full of historic spots associated with the sage.

(e) WEIHAIWEI (Pop. 222,247—June, 1948) formerly leased to Britain, was returned to China in 1930. It has a good harbor on the northern shore of the Shantung peninsula. Just outside the harbor is Liukung island which acts as a breakwater.

(f) CHEFOO, situated inside the Chefoo peninsula in northern Shantung, is a seaport for marketing silk, beans and wine.

SHENSI

Area: 187,691 sq. km.
Population: 10,011,201 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 92
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 2
Special Municipality: Sian
Capital: Sian

(1) *Topography.* The northern part of Shensi is mountainous, and is known as the Northern Shensi Plateau. The central part is called the Kwanchung Plain, while the southern part contains the Hanchung and Han river basins, which are surrounded by mountains of the Chinling range which, together with the Tapashan range, forms the two chains of Shensi.

The four rivers are the Yellow, Wei, Lo and Han. Canals have been built for irrigation purpose, in the valleys they form.

(2) *Climate.* The climate presents marked contrasts with the Chinling mountains as the dividing line. The northern section enjoys a continental climate of light rainfall and a cold winter. The southern part is comparatively humid with abundant rainfall. It is rather cloudy and foggy between February and October.

(3) *Agriculture.* The Wei river valley produces a large quantity of cotton. Rice and other cereals are grown in the south; wheat, bean, kaoliang and corn in the north. There are many forests in the mountains.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Shensi is rich in coal and petroleum. The yield of Shensi's coal deposits, approximately 29 percent of China's total, is next only to Shansi. Petroleum is found in Yenchang, Yenchwan and Ichwan.

Cotton and chemical factories are located mostly in Sian, Paochi and Nancheng. Handicrafts include rugs, tinware, and hide. Tung oil is also plentiful.

(5) *Communications.* The Lunghai railway, which begins at Lienyun in eastern Kiangsu, now reaches Tienshui. Construction is proceeding on the Tienshui-Lanchow section. Meanwhile, a survey of the Paochi-Chengtu railway has been completed.

Shensi has 4,400 km. of highways. One of the trunk lines connects Szechwan and Shensi with Kansu and Sinkiang.

Steamships can navigate some sections of the rivers near Sian, while most of the rivers are good for junk transportation.

Sian and Nancheng afford important terminals for air liners travelling between the coastal provinces and the northwest, including Sinkiang.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) SIAN, the provincial capital, is now a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is also one of the three auxiliary capitals of the country, the other two being Chungking and Peiping. Sian was for hundreds of years the political and cultural center of China, being the capital of the Chou, Chin, Sui and Tang dynasties. There are many historical and scenic spots both in and around the city.

(b) LINTUNG, east of Sian on the Lunghai railway, is a historic city where the remains of the Hua Ching Kung (palace) of the Tang dynasty are located.

(c) FUSHIH (Yenan), in northern Shensi, was for many years the home base of the Chinese Communist party after the communists were dislodged from central China in 1935.

(d) YULIN, inside the Great Wall in northern Shensi, is an important military town and a trading center with the Mongolians.

(e) NANCHENG (Hanchung) in southern Shensi is a commercial city in the Han river valley. Goods are shipped from here to Hankow down the Han river.

(f) HWANGLING, on the Hsienyang-Yulin highway in central Shensi, is the site of the Tomb of Huang Ti, or the Yellow Emperor (2697 B.C.), believed to be the first emperor of China.

SIKANG

Area: 451,521 sq. km.
Population: 1,696,600 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 48
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 4
Capital: Kangting

(1) *Topography.* Sikang became a regular province in 1939. Like Chinghai, it is a part of the Tibetan plateau.

Sikang has five main mountain ranges, all branches of the Kunlun and Himalaya ranges. They are: (a) the Himalayas, originating north of the Yaru Tsangpo river and extending to Yunnan, (b) the Lushan range, running between the Mekong and Salween rivers, (c) the Ningchingshan range, stretching from Chinghai between the Mekong and Kingsha rivers, (d) the Shalulishan range, west of the Tahsuehshan range, and (e) the Tahsuehshan range in eastern Sikang. The highest peak is over 3,000 m. The mountains run from north to south.

Rivers flow between these ranges, the depth between the summit of the highest peak and the lowest water level being 2,700 m.

(2) *Climate.* It is extremely cold in the snow-covered mountains, but comparatively mild in the eastern and southeastern parts where seasonal changes are noticeable and rainfall is more frequent.

(3) *People.* Chinese, Tibetans, Mongols, and others are found in this province. The Tibetans live predominantly in Taichao and the southern areas, while the Lolos inhabit the mountainous regions.

(4) *Agriculture.* Less than one-third of Sikang's land is under cultivation, but there is considerable production of rice and wheat in the Yaan and Sichang areas. Yaan tea is well known throughout west China. Natural forests abound in all parts of the province, and rare animal products are plentiful.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Mineral resources include gold, coal and petroleum. Kunghsien in central Sikang has abundant oil deposits. There is practically no modern industry in Sikang. Handicrafts include porcelain and rugs.

(6) *Communications.* There is no railway in Sikang. The projected Szechwan-Tibet railway will traverse Sikang.

There are about 1,600 km. of highways, of which the most important are the Chengtu-Kangting and Kangting-Sichang lines. The old trade roads are still the main arteries of communication between Sikang and Tibet, and between Sikang and Yunnan. All the rivers, except a small section of the Yaru Ysangpo river, are too hazardous for navigation.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KANGTING, the provincial capital, was formerly known as Tachienlu. It is the trading center for western Szechwan. Outgoing commodities include medicinal herbs, hides, wool and musk; incoming commodities are tea and cotton piecegoods.

(b) YAAN, highway town in eastern Sikang, is a market for tea and salt.

(c) SICHANG, a highway town in southeastern Sikang, is the province's agricultural center. Sericulture is also prosperous.

(d) PAAN, important town in central Sikang, is known for small-scale farming and grazing.

(e) KANTZE, commercial town in northern Sikang, is famous for its monastery of more than 4,000 lamas.

SINKIANG

Area: 1,711,931 sq. km.
Population: 4,047,452 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 77
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 4
No. of Mongolian Banners: 23
Municipality: 1
Capital: Tihwa

(1) *Topography.* Sinkiang was made a province in 1885. It is the largest province of China, being almost twice as large as the nine northeastern provinces (Manchuria) combined and three times the size of Szechwan.

Its four main mountain ranges are (a) the Altai range which enters Sinkiang from the Soviet Union and runs along the northern border; (b) the Tienshan range (Celestial Mountains) which skirts Sinkiang's western border, turns eastward and crosses the central part of the province from west to east, then splits into two branches, the northern Tienshan (Peilu) and the southern Tienshan (Nanlu); (c) the Karakoram range, which originates in the Pamirs and runs along the Sinkiang-India border, its peak of over 8,600 m., being the second highest in the world, and (d) the Kunlun range, which runs along the Sinkiang-Tibetan border.

Important rivers include the Tarim in the south and the Ili in the north. The Tarim is the largest inland river in China. It stretches from west to east in the

Tarim basin and empties into the Lobnor (lake). The Tarim and the Ili valleys are the richest areas in Sinkiang.

The entire province is a high plateau with an average altitude of 1,000 to 2,000 m., covered by steppes and deserts. Near Turfan, however, there is a depression 200 m. below sea level.

(2) *Climate.* Sinkiang has a continental climate with severe winters. The winter lasts more than eight months. The temperature in the Tihwa area averages 34 degrees F. below zero in January. Rainfall is generally light with about 250 mm. a year, which occurs within a short period of 20 days in the summer. There is no rainfall in the deserts.

(3) *People.* Sinkiang is sparsely populated but boasts many races. They are generally grouped into (a) Chinese, who number less than one-tenth of the total population; (b) Chantou or Head-binders, about 60 percent, who are followers of Islam; (c) Mongols, about six percent; (d) Kasaks, about five percent, predominantly Turkish by blood and Moslem by religion; (e) Kirghizs, who live mostly in Kashgar; (f) Chinese *Hui Hui,* who speak Chinese and are partly Chinese by blood; (g) Manchus, who number about five percent; (h) Tajiks who live near the Chinese Pamirs; (i) Tibetans; and (j) naturalized White Russians.

(4) *Agriculture.* Farmlands are located mostly in the Tarim and Ili valleys and the Tihwa area. The main crops are wheat, barley, rice, corn and cotton. Natural forests are found largely in the Tienshan mountains. The province is rich in fruits.

Animal husbandry thrives in Sinkiang, especially in the north. Sheep, horses and camels can be seen in large numbers, and wool is abundant.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Sinkiang is rich in minerals, such as gold, silver, lead, zinc, oil, jade and salt. The gold mines are in Altai, Yutien, and Chuguchak. The fine quality of Sinkiang jade is well known. Salt is produced throughout the province.

There are small industries such as cotton and woolen factories and chemical works in Tihwa and a few other cities. Handicrafts are very popular.

(6) *Communications.* There is no railway in Sinkiang, but a line will be constructed to link Tihwa and Ili with Lanchow. There are about 6,000 km. of highways linking the province with Soviet Union via Tahcheng, with Kansu via Hami, and with Suiyuan via Ningsia.

Sinkiang served as an important link between China and the Middle East and Europe before the opening of maritime navigation. The well-known "Silk Road," as described by Marco Polo, was opened in the 2nd century, connecting Sinkiang with India, Iran, Syria and finally Rome.

Tihwa, Hami and Tahcheng are the three airline stops in Sinkiang.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) TIHWA (Urumchi), the provincial capital, is a trading center, dealing in sheep's wool, furs and hide, salt and cotton piecegoods.

(b) HAMI, a highway and trading city in eastern Sinkiang, is noted for its melons, which are regarded as the most delicious of its kind in China.

(c) KITAI (Kuchengtze), northeast of Tihwa, is an important town between Sinkiang and Mongolia.

(d) INING, a strategic and commercial town in western Sinkiang, has for its chief products tea and animals.

(e) TAHCHENG in northwestern Sinkiang is a frontier town. The Hatushan gold mine is northeast of Tahcheng.

(f) CHENGHWA in northern Sinkiang is a trading center. Most of its inhabitants are Mongols and Mohammedans, engaged in grazing and farming.

(g) AKOSU, on the left bank of the Akosu river in southwestern Sinkiang, is a market for Chinese, Russian and Indian merchants.

(h) SHULEH in southwestern Sinkiang is one of the most prosperous towns. North of Shuleh is Shufu, which is a trading center for merchants from India and Afghanistan.

(i) SOCHE (Yarkand), on the main trade road in southern Sinkiang, was, before the opening of ocean navigation, an important point of contact with India in the south and Afghanistan in the west.

SUIYUAN

Area: 329,397 sq. km.
Population: 2,233,226 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 20
No. of Mongolian Banners: 17
Municipalities: 3
Capital: Kweisui

(1) *Topography.* Suiyuan is one of the provinces which was formerly part of Inner Mongolia. Topographically, it belongs to the Mongolian plateau. The Yinshan range in the central part of the province extends westward to join the Holan range in Ningsia. The highest peak of over 2,200 m. is north of Kweisui.

The main waterway is the Yellow river which enters Suiyuan from Ningsia and splits into two courses. The main course runs eastward and turns southward at Tiketo to provide a natural boundary between Shensi and Shansi provinces. The beds of this section of the river, known as Hotao, are unusually fertile. The other was the Yellow river's old course during the Ming dynasty. Between Paotow and Kweisui, a new irrigation system called the Minsheng Canals has been completed.

(2) *Climate.* Suiyuan has a continental climate with a severe winter. It is exceedingly cold in areas north of Yinshan. In the desert areas, there is almost no rainfall.

(3) *People.* Most of the inhabitants are Chinese and Mongols. There are also some Manchus and Mohammedans. (For fuller details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The Hotao area in Suiyuan is rich in such agricultural products as wheat, barley, kaoliang, and soybean, Suiyuan also produces large quantities of medicinal herbs.

Animal husbandry thrives among the Mongols. Camel and sheep wool is the largest item of export.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Suiyuan produces coal, salt, and soda. Industry is only in the beginning stage. There are some flour mills, woolen and egg-processing factories in Kweisui, Paotow and Fengchen. Handicrafts include woolen goods and rugs.

(6) *Communications.* The Peiping-Suiyuan railway is the only railroad in this province. Over 4,000 km. of highways in Suiyan link with Kansu, Ningsia, and Sinkiang. Junks can navigate the Chungwei-Toketo section of the Yellow river.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KWEISUI, the provincial capital, is on the Peiping-Suiyuan railway. The old city called Kweihwa is only three km. away. Kweisui became a commercial center for the Inner Mongolian provinces after the completion of the Peiping-Suiyuan railway.

(b) PAOTOW, the present terminus of the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, is the commercial center for goods going to Tientsin from the upper reaches of the Yellow river and for those from Tientsin to the various northwestern provinces. Exports include wool, fur, cotton and medicinal herbs. Imports are matches, tea and kerosene.

(c) PAILINGMIAO, northwest of Kweisui, is the site of one of the largest lamaseries, which has more than 1,000 lamas.

SUNGKING

Area: 84,559 sq. km.
Population: 2,570,806 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 15
Special Municipality: Harbin
Capital: Mutankiang

(1) *Topography.* The Changpai range continues into this province from Kirin in three principal branches: the Hsiaopaishan, which traverses the north and becomes part of the boundary between the provinces of Sungkiang and Hokiang; Laoyehling, which crosses the central part and forms the watershed for the Muling and Suifeng rivers; and Yingehling, which towers over Antu in the south.

Its largest river is the Sungari, which forms the northern boundary, separating it from Nunkiang. The Mutankiang, which begins in Kirin, cuts through the province on its way to join the Sungari in Hokiang province. The capital, Mutankiang, is located on this river. The Tumenkiang, rising in the Paitoushan in Antung province, forms part of the boundary with Korea, then continues southeastward through northern Korea into the Japan Sea.

(2) *Climate.* The mean summer temperature is about 72 degrees F., reaching a maximum around 95 degrees F. The mean winter temperature is about two degrees below zero F. with a minimum as low as 40 degrees below zero F. The mean temperature for the year is around 37 degrees F. Rainfall in the southeastern section amounts to about 575 mm.; in the northwest, about 450 mm.

(3) *Agriculture.* Chief agricultural products are soybean and beets grown in the Harbin region; soybean, rice and tobacco in the Mutankiang region; rice, corn and soybean around Yenchi, in the south. Ginseng and other medicinal herbs are among the special products.

The Mutankiang timberland covers an area of 890,000 acres, which is about equally divided among the provinces of Kirin, Sungkiang and Hokiang. The forests consist mainly of Manchurian birch, willow and pine.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Most of the mines are found in the southeast, chief among which are the coal collieries at Muling (estimated reserve, 75-million tons; annual output, 360,000 tons), Tungming (estimated reserve, 20-million tons; largely untapped), Laotoukou (estimated reserve, 25-million tons; annual output, 20,000 tons), Holung (estimated reserve, 167-million tons), and Hunchun. Gold mines are worked at Hunchun, Holung, and Antu—all within a short distance of the municipality of Yenchi.

The only industries in this province consist of small manufacturing plants for chemical products, wine, flour and

vegetable oil, located at Mutankiang and Yenchi.

(5) *Communications.* There are two trunk railroads and a few branch lines, totalling some 975 km.:

Chinese Changchun railway: from Harbin to Suifengho, an important international line;

Tumenkiang-Kiamusze line: from Tumenkiang on the Korean border to Kiamusze on the Sungari in Hokiang province; and

Kirin-Tumenkiang line: from Yungchi in Kirin province to the Korean border.

There are no major highways, only a few secondary roads supplementing the rail lines, principally those linking Chuho and Yenshou, Muling and Yenchi, and Mutankiang and Ningan.

River transportation is chiefly on the Sungari river which is navigable for steamboats in the summer. It serves as a highway for horse-drawn vehicles when frozen over. The Mutankiang is navigable for small wooden craft near the city of Mutankiang; while the Tumenkiang, though suitable for steam navigation, is not used much because of its location on the international boundary.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) MUTANKIANG, the provincial capital, is close to the U.S.S.R. border, and is the junction of the Chungchun and Tu-kia railways. Commodities grown in the Mutankiang valley are concentrated here.

(b) YENCHI, on the Korean border, is a commercial city. There are large numbers of Korean and Japanese immigrants here.

(c) HARBIN, railway city in Sungkiang province, is an important communication and commercial city not only for China's northeast but for the Far East as a whole. Commodities from all the nine northeastern provinces, Mongolia, Siberia, Europe and Japan, all are concentrated here.

Harbin is a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

SZECHWAN

Area: 303,318 sq. km.
Population: 47,437,387 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 139
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 3
No. of administrative bureau: 1
Special Municipality: Chungking
Municipalities: 2
Capital: Chengtu

(1) *Topography.* Szechwan is a basin surrounded by mountains with an average height of over 3,000 m. Its lowest latitude is found between the Min and To rivers, which is 400 m. below sea level.

The main mountain chains are the Minshan, Tapashan, Kiunglaishan and Taliangshan ranges. The Minshan hills are the main branch of the Peiling range, running from Chinghai and Kansu into the northwestern part of Szechwan. The Tapashan begins in Shensi and runs southeastward, forming the Wushan peaks along the Szechwan-Hupeh border, known as the Yangtze Gorges. The Kiunglai range is located between the Min and Tachingchwan rivers, Mount Omei range one of its peaks. The Taliangshan range skirts the Szechwan-Sikang border.

There are four rivers in Szechwan: the Yangtze, Min, To, and Chialing. The upper reaches of the Yangtze which run through this province form the Kingsha (Gold Sand) river. These four rivers give the province its name, for Szechwan means "Four Rivers."

(2) *Climate.* The province is largely in the temperate zone. Snow zones can be found in the mountain ranges. There is abundant rainfall, with an average of 470 mm. in July. In some areas, such as Chungking, summer is very hot and humid.

(3) *People.* The inhabitants in Szechwan are mainly native Chinese. There are some Lolos in southwestern Szechwan and Miaos in areas close to Kweichow.

(4) *Agriculture.* Szechwan is known as the "Heavenly Country," where almost every kind of agricultural products can be grown. It is one of China's richest provinces and can produce three crops a year in the Chengtu basin.

Szechwan's chief crops are rice, wheat, cotton, beans, corn, sweet potatoes, and tobaccos. Its silk production is next only to that of Chekiang and Kiangsu. Szechwan produces the largest quantity of medicinal herbs in the country, also large quantities of tung oil, hog bristles, tea, and sugar.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Szechwan produces salt, iron, coal, and oil. More than 40 *hsien* in the province, notably Tzeliutsing, produce salt. The highest production is 500,000 tons a year. Szechwan produced 2-million tons of coal in 1947.

During the war, Szechwan was the principal industrial base in Free China. The main industries now are salt and sugar. Other industries, metallurgical, chemical, oil cracking, and textile, also flourish.

Szechwan is famous for its embroidery and porcelain.

(6) *Communications.* Railways in this province are still in their planning and survey stage. Construction was started recently on the Chengtu-Chungking railway.

There are more than 6,000 km. of highways in Szechwan. The important ones are the Chengtu - Chungking, Szechwan-Shensi, Szechwan-Sikang, Szechwan-Kweichow, Szechwan-Yunnan, and Szechwan-Hunan highways.

Steamships can negotiate all the rivers in the province. The largest shipping company in Szechwan is the Ming Sung Industrial Company which also builds ships.

Szechwan is connected with the rest of the country by regular airline service with Chungking, Chengtu, Kiating and Luhsien as centers.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CHENGTU (Pop. 620,302—June, 1948), the provincial seat, is a famous city, being the capital of the Kingdom of Shu in the period of Three Kingdoms. The city is full of historic and scenic spots. The Chengtu basin is the richest area in the province.

(b) CHUNGKING, China's capital during World War II, is situated at the confluence of the Yangtze and Chialing rivers. It serves as the distributing center of commodities from Szechwan, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan and Kweichow. Now a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan, it is linked by roads with all parts in the northwest and southwest.

(c) KWANHSIEN, northwest of Chengtu, is the site of the 2,000-year-old irrigation system. Chingchengshan (mountain), west of Kwanhsien, was one of the places or origin of the Taoist religion.

(d) WANHSIEN, river port east of Chungking, is a marketing center for tung oil, sugar, and hog bristles.

(e) IPIN (Suifu), in southern Szechwan, is the uppermost point on the Yangtze river accessible to steamers. It is the commercial town for trade between Szechwan and Yunnan provinces.

(f) LOSHAN (Kiating), trading center in southwestern Szechwan, is situated at the confluence of the Min and Tatu rivers.

(g) Tzeliutsing, in central Szechwan, is the salt-producing center. There are more than 4,000 salt beds in this area.

(h) NEIKIANG, on the Chengtu-Chungking Highway, is Szechwan's sugar-producing center.

(i) OMEI, highway town south of Chengtu, has for its chief attraction Mount Omei, one of China's Buddhist sacred mountains.

TAIWAN

(*See first part of this chapter*)

YUNNAN

Area: 420,465 sq. km.
Population: 9,065,921 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien:* 112
No. of preparatory *hsien:* 16
Municipality: 1
Capital: Kunming

(1) *Topography.* Yunnan is a plateau, with an average altitude of 5,000 meters. The whole province is mountainous with small plains in the eastern part. Yunnan and Kweichow provinces together constitute the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau. To the south and west of Yunnan is Indo-China and Burma.

The three main mountain ranges all originate in Sikang. They are the Kaolikungshan, Lushan and Yunling ranges. Rivers include the Yangtze, Salween, and Mekong. The largest lake is Kunming lake outside the provincial capital.

(2) *Climate.* Yunnan enjoys a semi-tropical climate which is mild and healthy. The year is divided into wet and dry seasons. There is plentiful rainfall. Malaria epidemics are prevalent in the mountainous regions during the summer.

(3) *People.* The aborigines include Miaos and Lolos who live near Szechwan and Kweichow, and Payis who inhabit the southwestern part.

(4) *Agriculture.* Arable land is limited, but owing to the sparse population, farming is still the chief occupation of the people. Important crops are rice, wheat, barley, and cotton. Export articles include tea, silk, and medicinal herbs.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Yunnan is rich in minerals. Its production of copper and tin exceeds 80 percent of China's total output. Tin deposits in Yunnan are second only to those in Malaya. Other minerals such as gold, silver, zinc, iron and salt, are also plentiful.

Yunnan's most important industry is tin mining at Kokiu, south of Kunming. Kunming itself is an industrial center, having experienced an expansion during the war years when many factories were moved to Yunnan from the coast provinces.

(6) *Communications.* The two railways are the Yunnan-Indo-China and Kokiu-Pishihchai lines. The Yunnan-Indo-China railway was originally built by the French, but the section in Yunnan has been turned over to the Chinese Government. Projected lines include the Yunnan-Burma, Yunnan-Kweichow, and Szechwan-Yunnan railways.

Yunnan has 4,500 km. of highways. The famous Burma Road and later the Stilwell Road, which was China's only

overland link with the outside world at one time during the war against Japan, both originate in Kunming.

The rivers are almost unnavigable as the currents are extremely swift and dangerous.

Kunming is an important airways hub in the southwest. During World War II it served as the base for the U. S. 14th Air Force and for the ferry service over the Himalaya "Hump."

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KUNMING (Pop. 255,462—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is the political and commercial center, being a collecting and distributing city for tea, silk, copper, tin and the famous Yunnan ham.

(b) MENGTZE, border town on the Yunnan-Indo-China railway, is known as the gateway to Yunnan from the south.

(c) KOKIU, in southern Yunnan, is the tin city with more than 20 sq. km. of tin mines.

(d) TALI, highway town northwest of Kunming, is a scenic city and is famous for its marble production.

TIBET (Territory)

Area: 1,215,780 sq. km.
Population: 1,000,000 (estimated)
Capital: Lhasa

(1) *History.* Tibet, the outlying territory of China, is known as the land of lamas. It is often called the Roof of the World, because the Tibetan plateau is the highest in the world. The entire plateau includes Tibet proper, Sikang and Chinghai. The last two are now regular provinces, while Tibet remains China's sole Special Territory.

The history of Tibet is full of myths and legends. The Tibetans believe that their ancestors were descended from Chenresi, the compassionate spirit, from which all spiritual and human rulers came. But modern historians and anthropologists place the Tibetans in the Mongolian family. Though relations between China and Tibet dated from time immemorial, they first came into prominence in the Tang dynasty. With the Mongol conquest in the 13th Century, Tibet was incorporated into the Chinese Empire.

The Tibetans declared independence from China after the establishment of the Republic in 1912. With the establishment of the National Government in 1927, relations between the government and Tibet have been much improved. In 1929, the Dalai Lama sent a representative to Nanking to pledge allegiance to the National Government. Upon the death of the 13th Dalai Lama in 1933, the National Government sent a mission to Lhasa to confer posthumous honors upon the ruler of Tibet. Another mission was dispatched to the Tibetan capital in 1940 when the 14th Dalai Lama was enthroned. The remains of the 9th Panchan Lama were returned to Tibet at the end of the same year.

The 10th Panchan Lama, chosen from among the three divine boys found in Sikang and Chinghai, was enthroned on August 10, 1949, at Kumbum monastery in Chinghai. Early in September, 1949, the northwest region was overrun by the communists and the young spiritual leader of Tibetans was captured. On November 24, a Chinese Communist broadcast from Peiping in the name of Mao Tzetung alleged that the boy Panchan Lama had sent a message to communist Gen. Peng Teh-huai asking that a Communist army "liberate Tibet, wipe out all traitorous elements and deliver the Tibetan people."

In recent years, the government adopted various measures to further the relations between the Central and Tibetan governments. Scholarships were established by the government to encourage the study of Tibetan culture. During the war, the Tibetans made repeated contributions to the war effort, including the donation of 25 airplanes to the Chinese Air Force.

Both the National Government and the local authorities in Tibet regard Tibet as an integral part of China. Tibet has the right of local self-government and is represented in the various organs in the Central Government, such as the National Assembly, the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

(2) *Topography.* Tibet is a plateau with an average altitude of 4,500 m. for the plains and 5,500 m. for the mountainous regions. The highest mountain of the world, Mount Everest, which rises 8,870 m. above sea level, is in Tibet. The western part of Tibet, which is close to the Pamirs, is generally higher than the eastern part.

On the borders between southern Tibet and India and Nepal runs the Himalaya mountain range in a northwest to southeasterly direction over a distance of some 1,400 km. Mount Everett is a peak of this range. Mount Kanchinjunga, another peak, towers 8,500 m. above sea level. To the north of the Himalaya runs the Trans-Himalaya range; to the further north, the Karakoram range which stretches from Kashmir in northwestern India to central Tibet. The Kunlun range extends through the north.

Tibet is the source of several big rivers such as the Ganges, Indus and Brahmaputra. The most important is the Yaru Tsangpo which is the upper reaches of the Brahmaputra, originating in Lake Manasarowar in western Tibet and running through southern Tibet and then into Assam in India. There are also several inland rivers and lakes.

(3) *Climate.* Tibet has a strictly continental climate. The temperature is generally low, the air is dry, and changes are frequent. Lhasa, where the climate is comparatively mild, has a temperature 20 degrees F. below zero in the coldest months of January and February. It is exceedingly cold in the snow-capped mountains.

(4) *Religion.* The people of Tibet, as once said by the Panchan Lama, are all believers of Buddhism, and this has been manifested in their politics, laws, customs and life in general. In the Yuan dynasty, the Red Sect of Lamaism came into being in Tibet, which later underwent a period of decline and decadence through its association with the witchcraft of sword-swallowing and fire-eating. Then came the Yellow Sect. The Dalai Lama and Panchan Lama were the two disciples of the founder of this sect and later copontiffs. In addition there are the Black Sect and White Sect, but the Yellow Sect is still the most powerful in Tibet.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet. Next to him is the Panchan Lama, although in religious rank the two are of equal status. Directly under the Dalai Lama are three great monasteries in and around Lhasa, namely, the Djerpung (Drepung) monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas, and the Gandin (Ganden) monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Of the three monasteries, the Djerpung is the largest, but the Gandin is the most influential because the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai Lama and Panchan Lama in rank. Under the Panchan Lama is the Tashi Lhunpo monastery with 4,000 lamas and numerous smaller monasteries. In addition there are four Hutuketus, each occupying a monastery. Monasteries are found in all parts of Tibet, Sikang, Chinghai and in the northwestern and northern provinces of China.

(5) *Politics.* Tibet is the only theocracy in the world, where religion and politics are inseparable.

The Dalai Lama is the supreme ruler both in religious and political affairs. Under him are three *Silons* or chief councillors of state. Under the *Silons* is the *Kashag* formed by grand councillors of state, of whom three are laymen and one priest known as the *Kashag* Lama. The *Kashag* is the highest organ of administrative orders from the Dalai Lama in consultation with the *Silons*. In this connection, the *Silons* have a great deal to say in political matters. Under the *Kashag* are the *Yigtsang*, or secretariat, and the *Jickano*, or accounting department. The former is composed of four ecclesiastical officials, while the latter is made up four lay officials called *Tsipon* who are heads of all lay officials.

The *Tungdo* or Assembly is the most important organ in the political system of Tibet. All lay and ecclesiastical officials, as well as the abbots of the three large monasteries have the right to attend the *Tungdo*. The chairman must be over 60 years of age. When matters of emergency arise in domestic or external affairs, the *Tungdo* is convened to discuss and decide upon measures to be taken in dealing with the situation. Its decisions are acted upon by the government.

The local administrative unit in Tibet is the *Chung*, ruled by a *Chungpon*. In the case of a large *Chung*, two *Chungpon* may be appointed, one lay and the other ecclesiastical.

(6) *Social Organization.* The basic units of society in Tibet are the monasteries and the family. About one-fifth of the population are lamas, who alone form the intelligentsia. Class distinction is deeply rooted in Tibet, but there is opportunity for one to change his class. The common people may become lamas. The Dalai Lama or Panchan Lama, for instance, usually come from the common folk through reincarnation.

There are three main classes, namely, the nobility, the merchants, and the peasants and herdsmen. The lamas constitute a distinctive group and they alone are qualified for ecclesiastical appointments.

(7) *Economic Conditions.* Economically, Tibet is rather backward because of difficult geographical conditions and the scarcity of population. Both the climate and soil composition are unfavorable for farming. Arable land is limited to the small valleys south of Lhasa and even there cultivation is on a limited scale. Wheat, barley and beans are the main crops.

The territory is primarily a pastoral region, especially in the northern part where cattle raising is lucrative. Sheep's wool is exported principally to India.

Industry in Tibet is confined to the handicrafts, particularly woolen products. There is a small arsenal in Lhasa.

Tibet is rich in minerals, such as gold, silver, copper, iron, petroleum, and coal,

but most of them are undeveloped because of superstition.

Tibet still depends to a certain extent upon Szechwan, Yunnan, Sikang and Chinghai provinces for tea, silk, cotton, cloth, tobacco, wines, porcelain and other daily necessities. Its exports include wool, furs, skins, and medicinal herbs.

(8) *Communications.* Tibet is known for its inaccessibility. Primitive methods of transportation are used throughout the region. Of the two age-old trade routes between interior China and Tibet, one extends from Kangting to Lhasa via Batang and Chamdo, and the other from Sining in Chinghai to Lhasa via the Kunlun and Tangla mountain ranges. There is also a route west of Lhasa which connects Tibet and Sinkiang.

The British have extended the Indian railway system to Darjeeling, from which point trade roads across the Himalayas link Yatung and Gyantze, two important trading centers in Tibet. Another route runs from Simla through Gantok, the capital of Sikkim, crossing the Natu La into the Chumbi Valley, and from there runs to Lhasa or Shigatze.

Both railways and highways are projected to link Lhasa and the interior of China, but construction has not yet been started. Means of transportation inside Tibet are confined to animals, principally yaks.

(9) *Important Cities.* LHASA is Tibet's Holy City. It has a population of about 60,000, half of whom are lamas. It is the religious, political and communication center of the entire territory.

TASHI LHUNPO is the second largest city with a population of 20,000. Tibet's important trading centers include Gyantze, Yartung and Gartok.

MONGOLIA

Mongolia was formerly divided into Outer Mongolia and Inner Mongolia. Outer Mongolia, originally one of China's two territories, the other being Tibet, became an independent nation in 1945. Inner Mongolia comprise the provinces of Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan and Ningsia. While Mongols live in many parts of China, most of them are congregated in these four provinces and Outer Mongolia.

The great plateau known as Mongolia occupies about 4-million sq. km. in the heart of the Asiatic continent. It lies from 400-2,000 m. above sea level and is enclosed on all sides by lofty mountains, with the Gobi (desert) in the center. It has a continental climate, subject to constantly variable extremes of heat and cold. The low humidity, coupled with a scarcity of rainfall, renders agriculture highly impracticable without the aid of irrigation.

The place is inhabited by tribes who originally carried on a nomadic existence in the valleys of the Kerilen river to the north of the Gobi, and who later recurrently invaded the old civilized countries in the Far East, the Near East and Europe. Under Genghis Khan (1162-1127) the Mongols founded a world empire. After the 14th Century, this once powerful empire collapsed and the Mongols split into three main groups—the Northern Mongols in Outer Mongolia, the Southern Mongols in Inner Mongolia, and the Western Mongols in Sinkiang and Chinghai.

The Mongols were divided by the Manchus in the 17th century into a number of tribal leagues and banners in accordance with the Manchu pattern of organization. Definite frontiers were assigned to each of the tribal units, who were ruled by a prince of a particular banner.

The banner is the basic unit of the Mongolian political organization, which may be placed under a league or be independent. The tribal chieftan or *khan* holds office of hereditary right, while the leaders of the leagues are elected from among the banner chiefs. Each banner has a *Jassak* holding office by hereditary title, who is assisted by civil and military officials. The banners are administered by the provincial governments in their respective provinces.

The Mongol population in the various areas is estimated as follows:

Nine Northeastern Provinces and Jehol	1,000,000
Chahar	150,000
Suiyuan	220,000
Ningsia	20,000
Chinghai	140,000
Sinkiang	250,000
Outer Mongolia	700,000
Total	2,480,000

The present distribution of the Mongol banners is as follows:

(1) *Mongol Banners in the Nine Northeastern Provinces and Jehol:*

(a) The *Barga* Mongols, numbering about 50,000, occupy the western part of the Hsingan highland in Heilungkiang. They have an administration semi-Mongol and semi-Manchu in nature. There are two *Solon* Banners of a Tungusic forest-nomad origin but are now Mongolized, two new *Barga* Banners and one old *Barga* Banner of old Mongol stock, one *Olot* Banner transferred from Sinkiang in the 18th century, a *Buriat* Banner from Siberia in the 17th century, and an *Oranchon* Banner of the reindeer-using Tungusic nomad stock. Besides, there is also a group of *Daghors* around Hailar who, through their relations with the Manchus, used to play an important part in the administration of Barga.

(b) The *Daghor* and *Yeghe Mingan* groups also live in Heilungkiang, east of the Hsingan. The *Daghors* are a people of partly Mongol and partly Tungus origin from the Nonni valley. The *Yeghe Mingan* are sometimes called the *Mannai* or *Hangnai* Olot. They came from Sinkiang and live on the eastern slope of the Hsingan.

(c) The *Jerim League* is the first of the six leagues of Inner Mongolia and together with the *Josoto* and *Joude* form what is generally known as the eastern Mongols. They were the first to join the Manchus in the 17th Century. At present 80 percent of the *Jerim* Mongols engage in agriculture. The league is divided into ten banners, including two *Gorlos* Banners spreading from Changchun to the Sungari river, one *Durbet* Banner in Heilungkiang, one *Jalait* Banner in Heilungkiang and six *Khorchin* Banners in Liaoning.

(d) Sibo and Suruk Mongols — The Sibo Mongols were originally Mongol troops raised to garrison the Willow Palisade and organized in an eight-banner cadre on the Manchu system. The Suruk Mongols were in charge of the herds from which sacrificial animals were drawn for use at the Manchu imperial tombs at Mukden. Their lands, now cultivated, lie near Changwu in Liaoning.

(e) The *Josoto* League in southeast Jehol is agricultural. It comprises seven banners, including three *Karachin* Banners whose princes are descended from one of Genghis Khan's daughters, two *Tumet* Banners from Suiyuan in the early 17th Century, one *Khalkha* Banner from Outer Mongolia in the 17th Century, and the *Shreto Khurien* in which a Living Buddha is the secular prince.

(f) The *Joude League* in the northern half of Jehol is partly agricultural. It has 13 banners; two *Jarod* Banners, one North *Khorchin* Banner, two *Bairin* Banners, one *Keshikten* Banner, one *Naiman* Banner southwest of Kailu, one *Khalkha* Left Wing Banner, three *Aokhan* Banners east and northeast of Chihfeng, and two *Ongniot* Banners west and northwest of Chihfeng.

(2) *Mongol Banners in Suiyuan and Chahar:* (a) The Chahar Mongols occupy a large territory in northern Chahar and eastern Suiyuan, which is particularly cultivated. There are eight "military" and four "herdsman" banners. The "herdsman" banners were originally in charge of horses, cows, sheep, and camels for the use of the Manchu emperor. Of the military banners, four — All-Blue, Bordered White, All-White, Bordered Yellow—in Chahar, and four—All-Yellow, All-Red, Bordered Red, Bordered Blue—in Suiyuan. There are also two *Taibis* Banners which served as herdsmen for the Empress Dowager.

(b) The *Silingol* League's ten banners form a long, narrow strip north of the Chahar Mongols in northern Chahar. They are two *Ujumchin* Banners, two *Hochi* Banners, two *Abaga* Banners, and two *Sunid* Banners.

(c) The *Kweihua Tumet* Banner occupies the modern city of Kweisui, Suiyuan provincial capital. It has six Somon with 10,000 people, most of whom have forgotten the Mongol language.

(d) The *Ulanchab* League in northern Suiyuan is the best grazing land for camels of the Suiyuan-Sinkiang caravan road. The six banners include one *Durbet Khukhet* Banner, one *Khalkha* Right Wing Banner, one *Mo-Ninggan* Banner, and three *Ulat* Banners.

(e) The *Ikhchao* League occupies the Ordos Grassland in southern Suiyuan and has seven banners in two wings. East Wing: one North, one Center, one South Banner; and West Wing: one North, one Center, one South, and one South End Banner.

(3) *Mongol Banners in Ningsia (Western Mongols):* (a) The Alashan Mongols form one banner, the tribal name of which is *Hoshot,* with their lands lying west of Alashan range.

(b) The Etsingol Mongols form a banner around the *Etsin-Gol.* Their tribal name is *Torgot.*

(4) *Mongols in Chinghai (Western Mongols):* The Mongols reached Kokonor (Blue Sea) following the invasion of Tibet by the western Mongols at the end of the 16th Century. The Chinghai Mongols are divided into two leagues with 29 banners. They are the Kokonor East Wing League with 11 *Hoshot* banners, one *Hoit* Banner, and one *Durbet* Banner, and the Kokonor West Wing League with two *Chorlos* Banners, nine *Hoshot* Banners, one *Khalkha* Banner, three *Torgot* Banners, and one *Chagan Nom-on* Khan Banner (Prince of the South of the Yellow River Banner).

(5) *Mongols in Sinkiang (Western Mongols):* Northern Sinkiang was the base from where Mongols invaded Russia, the Near East, and India, and where

the western Mongols waged war against Tibet and the northern Mongols. They occupy the territory mostly between the Altai and the Tienshan ranges. There are three leagues following tribal groupings. They are: (a) The *Unen Susuktu* League is composed entirely of Old *Torgots* with ten banners consisting of non-Mongol groups. These include four *Kara-shar Torgot* Banners, two *Kur-Kharaoso (Erin-Khabirakh) Torgot* Banners, one banner of *Chingho Torgot* Banner, and three *Koboksari Torgot* Banners.

(b) The *Bato Setkhitu* League has three Central Division *Hoshot* Banners occupying the Yuiduz plateau northwest of Yenki (Karashar).

(c) The *Ching Setkhitu* League has ten banners distributed from the Tarbagatai region to the slopes of the Altai. There are two New *Torgot* Banners, one *Habchak* New *Hoshot* Banner, three West Wing *Urianghai* Banners, and four East Wing *Urianghai* Banners. These are the so-called *Altai-Urianghai* of Turkish origin but are Mongolized. The word *Urianghai* means "forest dwellers," thus tribes of the same name are not necessarily related to each other.

(d) Besides, there is a Chahar group living in the Borotala valley on the way from Tihwa to Ili. They were moved from Chahar to Sinkiang in the 18th Century. Another group are the *Olots* living in the Ili valley known as the Six Somon. They are from the central stock of the western Mongols from which *Torgots, Hoshot,* and others originate. Both groups have no princes.

(6) *The Outer-Mongolian Aimaks:* Mongols in Outer Mongolia belong to the group of northern Mongols. They are divided into four *aimaks* according to tribal grouping: (a) *Tsetsen Khan Aimak* contains 23 banners. It is also known as the Eastern Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols.

(b) *Tushtu Khan Aimak* contains 20 banners. It is also known as the Northern Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols. In this territory is the city of Urga.

(c) *Saint Noyan Khan Aimak* contains 24 banners and is also known as the Central Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols. Within these territory is the city of Uliassutai.

(d) *Jasakto Khan Aimak* contains 19 banners. It is also known as the Western Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols.

(7) *The Kobdo Special District,* also known as *Sain Jayagato Aimak,* contains 19 banners. The tribes of this district are historically part of the old western Mongol federation. There are 11 East Wing *Durbet* Banners, three West Wing *Durbet* Banners, one East Wing and one West Wing *Hoit* Banners, one *Jakhchin* (Border) Banner who are *Olots,* one *Olot* Banner, and one *Minggan* Banner. There are also some *Khalkha* Mongols in this district, descendants of the garrison who occupied it after the final collapse of the western Mongol power in the 18th Century.

All the tribes within what is now the *Ching Stekhitu Aimak* under Sinkiang province were formerly included in the Kobdo district. Kobdo authorities were also charged with the supervision of Urianghai.

CHAPTER 3

MAJOR SEAPORTS

The seaports in the 8,630 kilometers long China coast are grouped by the Chinese Ministry of Communications into four classes, as follows:

SPECIAL CLASS: Shanghai.

FIRST CLASS: Dairen, Hulutao, Tangku, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Kowloon, Canton, Chankiang (Kwangchowwan), Keelung.

SECOND CLASS: Antung, Port Arthur, Yingkow (Newchwang), Chinwangtao, Chefoo, Weihaiwei, Lienyun, Ningpo, Yungkia (Wenchow), Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Kungpei, Kongmoon, Pakhoi, Hoikow, Yulin, Kaohsiung.

THIRD CLASS: Pulantien, Lungkow, Tengchow, Tinghai, Santuao, Tsinkiang, Aotou, Timpak, Yamshien.

The inland ports are divided into two classes:

FIRST CLASS: Nanking, Hankow, Chungking, Harbin, Wuchow.

SECOND CLASS: Chinkiang, Wuhu, Anking (Hwaining), Kiukiang, Yoyang, Changsha, Changteh, Shasi, Ichang, Wanhsien, Kiamusze, Waiyeung (Nanning), Lungchow.

This chapter deals with the special, first and second class seaports.

SHANGHAI

(1) *Location.* Shanghai (31° 13′ N. and 121° 27′ E.) on the Whangpoo river is some 20 km. from its mouth at Woosung. It became a treaty port at the termination of the Opium War of Nanking in 1842. A piece of land along the Whangpoo river was allotted as a foreign settlement. In 1845 the International Settlement and French Concession were created. During the Taiping Rebellion thousands of people moved into these foreign settlements, resulting in a rapid increase of Shanghai's population. At the end of World War II these concessions were returned to China.

Shanghai owes its importance to its excellent geographical position. It is about midway along the China coast. The Whangpoo river empties itself into the Yangtze, which is the longest river and the main artery of central China. With a population of more than 4,630,000, Shanghai is China's leading port and seventh among the world's leading cities. Through its harbor 42,890,000 tons of cargo passed in 1937.

The city holds the key to an excellent inland waterway system. Most important of the numerous inland ports on the Yangtze, Hankow, 450 km. upstream, is also a railway center. It is linked with north China via the Peiping-Hankow railway and with south China via the Canton-Hankow railway. Other important river ports are Chinkiang, Nanking, Pukow (terminus of the Tientsin-Pukow railway), Wuhu, Kiukiang, and Chungking.

Shanghai is directly connected with Nanking and Hangchow by rail. Motor roads link this port with many other ports of the country.

(2) *Harbor.* Shanghai harbor covers a section of the Whangpoo river between the Kiangnan wharf to the west and Tungkoukow to the east. It is 16,470 m. long by 32 to 610 m. wide. Its facilities can accommodate more than 400,000 tons of shipping, or about 70 ships ranging from 2,000 to 10,000 tons each.

The Fairy Flats (Sheng Tan), located at the mouth of the Yangtze river, affect the flow of traffic. At low tide vessels over 20,000 tons find entering the port difficult and must wait for high tide at the outerharbor of Woosung, where the average depth at low water is 9.15 m. Its muddy, rather than sandy, bed is suitable for anchorage.

Shanghai's development will be retarded unless the lower reaches of the Whangpoo river are well dredged and the shoal at the mouth of the Yangtze is removed. Since V-J Day the Whangpoo Conservancy Board has been dredging the Whangpoo River. By April, 1948, about 4,688,020 cubic meters of mud had been

removed. The water passage regained its prewar depth and is now able to accommodate larger sea-going vessels.

Similar efforts were made to remove the Fairy Flats. Before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937, about ten million cubic meters of mud were removed. The average depth was 8 m. below the high water mark. After V-J Day the area was again surveyed. Some experts consider such dredging projects too costly to be practical. They suggest shifting the center of Shanghai eastward towards Woosung, and across the Wangpoo river to Pootung, nearer the outer harbor.

The monsoon makes the climate in the Shanghai area rather mild. The temperature ranges between 37°C. in summer and —5°C. in winter with an average of 15.3°C. The annual rainfall is recorded at 900 to 1,100 mm., mostly in late spring and early summer, with 120 to 140 rainy days per annum. The tide at Woosung reaches a peak of 3.3 m. In July and August typhoons reach this port at low velocity. Aside from flooding the low-lying districts little material damage results.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Shanghai is the best equipped harbor in China. The following table shows the general condition of the Shanghai harbor at Poosi and Pootung areas.

Channel Depth Below Mean Low Water	Poosi Area		Pootung Area		Total
	Length of Wharf (Meters)	Length of Shoreline (Meters)	Length of Wharf (Meters)	Length of Shoreline (Meters)	
9.15 m. (30 ft.)........	2,460	732	682	744	4,618
7.32–9.15 m. (24–30 feet)...	2,240	738	6,399	610	9,987
5.49–7.32 m. (18–24 feet)...	1,034	1,357	5,132	1,777	9,300
3.66–5.49 m. (12–18 feet)...	1,729	3,076	3,745	1,754	10,304
1.83–3.66 m. (6–12 feet)....	2,789	3,218	2,089	946	9,042
0–1.83 m. (0–6 feet)......	1,701	1,708	1,755	2,932	8,096
(Zero or above zero).......	7,672	7,470	4,415	4,743	24,300

Before the war Shanghai had 21 floating wharves and six fixed wharves at Nantao (South City). Most of them were either destroyed or seriously damaged during the war. After V-J Day, a Wharf Rehabilitation Board was established to repair and construct Nantao wharf facilities. By May, 1947 nine floating wharves were constructed, equipped with tugs, pontoons and UNRRA oil tankers. The adjoining waters were dredged to a depth of 4.2 m. below the low water mark. This created berthing space to serve 18 additional vessels of 3,000 tons, increasing the port's cargo handling capacity by 55,000 tons a year. The second work phase was begun at the end of May, 1947. Lack of money caused a work stoppage in November, after three more floating wharves were completed. Many auxiliary installations were erected in the meanwhile.

Reconstruction of the Nantao ferry was finished in November, 1947. Capacity of the ferry is seven trucks, five automobiles and two motorcycles.

The 21 wharves, formerly foreign-operated, are still serviceable. Fifteen are located in the former International Settlement. Built of steel frames and wooden piles they have a total length of 308 m. The other six are situated in the ex-French Concession. Five are in good condition with a total length of 68 meters.

The municipal government controls a large number of small fixed wharves. Most of them are scattered along Soochow creek between the Garden Bridge and Chouchiachiao.

The China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company owns 21 floating wharves, mainly located in the Poosi area. Nine floating wharves and a great number of small fixed wharves are owned by Chinese shipping companies, while 15 wharves

are under foreign management. More than half are in good condition.

After V-J Day, the 14 wharves owned by the Japanese were taken over by the Chinese government. Thirteen were managed by the customs authorities and the other by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, until the communist occupation of Shanghai in May, 1949.

Shanghai harbor has a total storage capacity of 794,000 tons of cargo. This includes 70,000 tons of storage space belonging to the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, 130,000 tons to other Chinese firms, 412,000 tons to foreign concerns, and 182,000 tons formerly Japanese owned.

Shanghai had twelve docks totaling 1,511 m., but many of them became war casualties. Of 49 cranes, only 11 are still usable. The Shanghai-Nanking and Shanghai-Hangchow railway administration ordered a 140 h.p. crane from the United States in 1948, to be installed at its wharves in the Chunghuapang area near Woosung.

(4) *Trade.* In the month of October, 1946 alone, Shanghai harbor berthed 15,121 vessels with a total tonnage of 348,344. This was a 271.2% increase of vessels and 320.8% increase of total tonnage over October, 1945. According to the Chinese Maritime Customs, trade passing through Shanghai in 1946 totaled CNC$1,536,220,679,000, or about 80.29% of China's total. Of this, CNC$1,280,916,-920,000 were imports, about 85.33% of China's total imports. The balance, CNC$255,303,759,000 were exports, about 61.95% of China's total exports for 1946.

The leading import items were raw cotton, cotton cloth, woolen goods, machinery and machine tools, vehicles, iron and steel, paper, tobacco, and gasoline. Principal exports were: tung oil, hog bristles, raw silk, leather, hide, and tea.

Most of China's export and import trade has been channeled through Shanghai. Annual cargo-handling capacity is 10,300,000 tons.

DAIREN (TALIEN)

(1) *Location.* Dairen (38° 50′ N. and 121° 40′ E.) is situated on the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula. It fronts Dairen bay and is 12.97 km. long and 11.12 km. wide with an area of 199.78 sq. km. The depth of the bay varies from 7 m. to 18 m. Dairen, before the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95, was an obscure little village. The Manchu regime planned to construct a harbor there but because of the prevalent storms and increasing accumulation of mud and silt the project did not materialize. In 1892, at the suggestion of Li Hung-chang, it was made a military fort for the defense of Peking (Peiping). In 1894 it fell with its sister port, Port Arthur, into Japanese hands. In 1898 the port was leased to Russia as a reward for her intervention against Japan's occupation of the Liaotung peninsula after the end of the first Sino-Japanese War. But after Russia was defeated by Japan in 1905, it was returned to Japan without China's consent. Dairen subsequently became the base for Japanese aggression in China Northeastern Provinces.

Dairen is the largest port in north China and is next only to Shanghai in volume of trade. Its status is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan and it has a population of 543,690. According to the Sino-Soviet treaty of August 14, 1945, it was to become a free port under Chinese administration. But Chinese Government troops and civil administrators were barred from the area by Soviet obstruction and armed Chinese Communists.

(2) *Harbor.* The harbor proper is about 1,000,000 sq. m. Its mouth is 400 m. wide. Depths range between 3 and 12 m., average 8 m. The difference between low and high tide is 12 m. Darien is icebound from November to February.

Temperatures vary between 35.70°C. and —19.9°C. with a mean of 10.2°C. Frost and snow come early in November and linger about 149 days. Precipitation averages 540 mm. a year.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There are three breakwaters outside the harbor: the eastern—615 m. long, the northern—3,702.5 m., and the western—2,255 m. long. The breakwaters are five meters higher than the highest tide mark. During the Japanese lease, aside from the improvement of the old wharves, a pier was constructed at Kantsingtze for coal transportation. Now the harbor can accommodate 38 ships of 20,000 tons at one time. Its cargo-handling capacity, according to the Ministry of Communications, is 10,300,000 tons a year. In prewar years the value of trade passing through Dairen amounted to 1,200,000,000 Japanese yen. Its main items of export are soybean, bean cake and oil, peanuts, salt, fishery products, and millet. The principal imports are cotton goods, iron and steel, machinery and vehicles. Most of Dairen's trade was conducted with Japan. In 1936 its total export trade amounted to 484,-606,373 Japanese yen, its import trade 940,510,814 Japanese yen.

There were 753 factories, mostly engaged in chemical and machine works. An output worth 375,985,000 Japanese yen was reported for the year 1936.

Hulutao

(1) *Location.* Hulutao (40° 45′ N. and 121° E.) is a small peninsula jutting into the Lienshan bay. As early as 1907, a plan was advanced to build Hulutao harbor large enough to compete with Japanese-controlled Dairen. Work started in 1910 but was halted in 1911 by the Revolution. It was resumed in 1930, when Chang Hsueh-liang introduced a five-year project to reconstruct the port. Work was again interrupted by the "Mukden Incident." Construction was finally completed in 1938 by the Japanese puppet state of "Manchukuo." Hulutao is now one of the largest Liaotung harbors and an outlet for petroleum and coal from the Fuhsin mines.

The harbor can be developed to handle 3,000,000 tons of cargo a year.

(2) *Harbor.* Hulutao (or the gourd-shaped peninsula) extends into the sea for 3 km. Across the channel is the Kaoliang peninsula. The two promontories embrace a wide water area. The depth of the harbor, even at low tide, is 8.5 m. At high tide, the depth is increased to over 13 m. The harbor can accommodate four 10,000-ton ships and a dozen or more 6,000-ton vessels at one time.

Compared with other ports in north China, the freezing season here is rather short; and the inner part of the harbor is entirely free of ice in the winter.

The harbor has seven wharves with a total length of 5,900 m. The godowns have a total storage capacity of 17,000 tons.

(3) *Trade.* Hulutao owes its importance to the richness in mineral resources of the adjoining areas. About 80% of the coal and other mineral products of the Fuhsin mines were exported from this port; coal and petroleum were the two main items in Hulutao's trade. Volume of export in 1936 totaled 56,000 tons and this was increased to 100,000 tons the following year. The total volume of imports in 1936 was about 45,000 tons, which was boosted to 80,000 tons the next year.

Tangku

(1) *Location.* Tangku (39° N. and 117° 40′ E.), the outer harbor of Tientsin, is located on the northern side of the Hai or Ku river estuary. Heavily silted at many places, the Hai river has been a deterrent to the development of Tientsin as a seaport. The remedy to this situation lies in the building of Tangku harbor.

Tangku is connected with the Peiping-Liaoning railway and with the entire railway system in north China, covering an area about 3,000 km. in diameter, in which rich mineral, industrial, and agricultural resources are to be found.

(2) *Harbor.* The mouth of the Hai river is bugle-shaped. The water depth in the Tangku harbor varies between 5 and 6 m. while on the Taku side, across the Hai river, it ranges up to 11.2 m. The Hai River Conservancy Bureau reported that during the period from 1910 to 1942 the average high and low water marks at Tangku were higher than those of Taku by 0.258 and 0.46 m., respectively. The velocity of the rising tide is two nautical miles per hour, while that of the ebbing tide is one nautical mile per hour.

Southeasterly winds prevail most of the time and strong northwesterly winds attain an average speed of 86.4 m. an hour. Annual precipitation is 503.7 mm. and rainy days total 53. Temperatures vary between 40°C., and 18.9°C., with an average of 12°C. The harbor is frozen over from December to February. It is not navigable, even with the aid of ice breakers, at 10°C. below zero.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Construction of Tangku harbor was started by the Japanese in 1940 and was continued on a large scale until the end of the war in 1945. The Japanese aimed at a capacity of 8,000,000 tons a year.

The Government in 1946 adopted a three-year plan to continue the work left unfinished by the Japanese. The new plan proposes to increase the capacity by 2,000,000 tons of cargo a year. Further construction will enable the harbor to handle more than 10,000,000 tons. Construction was disrupted by the communist rebellion. There are three breakwaters outside the harbor. The southern one was designed to be 17 km. long; a section of 5 km. has been completed and another section of 4 km. is partially completed. Six km. of the northern breakwater, originally planned to be 13 km. long, were under construction. Of the 650 m. of the lateral breakwater, only a length of 540 m. has been built. The mooring area measures 1,400 by 400 m. with an average depth of about two meters. Pending the completion of the three breakwaters and the removal of sediment along the lower reaches, the passage of the harbor is too shallow to handle large seagoing vessels.

There are two large-size wharves in Tangku harbor; one, 700 m. long, and the other, 350 m. long. The total length of wharf frontage is 3,640 m. Other harbor facilities include six cranes, 14 dredges, and some dozens of warehouses with a total storage capacity of 29,000 tons.

In addition, there is a lock measuring 180 by 21 m. Its gates are operated with a 75 h.p. motor. Inside the lock the depth is about 5 m., which is navigable by vessels of 3,000 tons.

Tientsin

(1) *Location.* Tientsin (39° N. and 117° 15′ E.) straddles the Hai river, the confluence of five rivers in Hopei province. In reality, Tientsin is a river port rather than a seaport. While it will remain a metropolis, its functions as a port will be gradually taken over by Tangku harbor, 25 km. to the east.

Tientsin, with a population of 1,772,840, is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executve Yuan.

(2) *Harbor.* The five tributaries of the Hai river carry a considerable quantity of silt to the low reaches of the river. The estuary of the river would remain blocked if it were not dredged constantly. At Tientsin, however, the Hai river has a depth of 4 to 4.5 m. and a width of 200 meters.

The temperature ranges from 42.7°C. to 16.3°C. below zero, with a mean of 11.6°C. The average rainfall is 526 mm. per annum. Northwesterly winds prevail in January and southeasterly winds in July. Snow begins to fall in the middle of November and freezing sets in from December to February.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* On both banks of the Hai river spread the harbor installations which include 38 wharves, with a total length of 2,512 m., 21 cranes, and 3 pontoons. There are 16 markings along the channel from Tientsin to Tangku. The Hai River Conservancy Bureau has 8 dredges, with other vessels, in constant operation. The channel is now constantly maintained at 4 m. depth with a current of 1,000 cu. m. per second. The covered storage capacity is 45,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* Tientsin usually shows a favorable balance in foreign trade. In November, 1946, the value of imports was CNC$3,326,351,270; while that of exports was CNC$4,623,332,730. Of the total export trade, hog bristles made up 60%, and raw cotton and beans 15% each. Among imports, flour and sugar occupy leading places.

Tientsin is prosperous both in commerce and industry. More than 700 factories of various sizes were registered in Tientsin after V-J Day. Among these the textile industry took the lead. Of nine cotton mills, seven were government owned. Many closed down following communist occupation.

Beyond Tientsin is the vast hinterland of Hopei, Chahar, Shansi, Suiyuan, Kansu, Ningsia, and Sinkiang. Export goods go chiefly to the United States, Britain, Australia, and Canada.

The amount of cargo handled through Tientsin in 1946 was about 7,830,000 tons.

Tsingtao

(1) *Location.* Tsingtao (36° 3′ N. and 120° 23′ E.) is situated on Kiaochow bay, which is 20.38 km. long with an area of 197.6 sq. km. It was leased to Germany in 1898. Japan seized it during World War I. After the Washington Conference it was returned to China. The water depth ranges between 60.39 and 7.32 meters. Along with Hsuehchia island, Tsingtao forms a neck 3 km. wide from Kiaochow bay, which is one of the finest natural harbors on the China coast. Tsingtao is a special municipality under jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It has a population of 850,000.

The provinces served by its harbor are rich in agricultural and mineral resources. Tsingtao is the only port between Shanghai and Tangku.

(2) *Harbor.* There are two harbors. The larger has an area of 3,970,000 sq. m. with a mouth 269 m. wide; the smaller covers 348,000 sq. m. with a mouth 100 m. wide. Their water depths are nine and five meters, respectively. The harbors are open in winter.

The temperature varies between 35.9°C. and 16°C. below zero, with a mean of 12°C. Average summer heat is 23°C.; average winter cold is 10°C. below zero. Annual precipitation is about 646 mm.; annual rainy days number 70 to 80. The tide reaches a maximum height of 3.3 meters.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The large harbor has a total available frontage of 4,534 m. and is shielded by a semi-circular breakwater 2,990 m. long and 5 m. high. On the breakwater are railroad tracks and five wharves. The first wharf can accommodate six 8,000-ton vessels; the second, eight 1,500-ton vessels; the third, one 6,000-ton vessel; and the fourth, seven 8,000-ton vessels. The fifth wharf, completed in 1936, is the largest.

The inner harbor has 2,455 m. of water frontage. To its south and north are two breakwaters. There is a pier to facilitate the loading and unloading of cargo.

The Ministry of Communications reports that Tsingtao harbor has four

cranes, 20 navigation markings, two dredges, 6,996 meters of wharves, and 52,000 tons capacity of godowns.

(4) *Trade*. Tsingtao is an important gateway of Shantung province. It is connected with the hinterland by the Kiaochow-Tsinan railway. In 1948 Tsingtao had more than 1,000 factories of various sizes. The main export items are: salt, peanuts, eggs, straw braid for making hats, leather, tobacco, and fishery products. Among the leading imports are: cotton piecegoods, sugar, mineral oils, chemicals, and industrial materials. Tsingtao's trade constitutes about 1.75% of China's total trade. In 1933 it handled CNC$70,846,000 worth of imports and CNC$29,238,000 worth of exports. In 1946 it handled CNC$21,405,294,000 worth of imports and CNC$11,934,024,000 worth of exports, constituting 2% and 2.98%, respectively, of the country's import and export trade.

The Ministry of Communications reports that in 1947 Tsingtao had a cargo handling capacity of 7,830,000 tons.

KOWLOON

Kowloon (22° 18′ N. and 114° 12′ E.) is located on the western tip of a small peninsula across the channel from Hongkong. It was leased to Great Britain in 1898 for a term of 99 years. It began to flourish after Hongkong was made a free port. The bulk of exports and imports between south China and Hongkong flows through Kowloon.

The harbor has a depth varying from two to 40 m., but generally it is 9.2 m. Its inner harbor is inside Wanchuchou (shoal) where the water depth averages nine meters. Shielded by a breakwater and a narrow gateway, it is particularly well protected from heavy seas and storms.

Customs statistics for 1946 show that CNC$37,726,182,000 and CNC$8,326,576,000 worth of goods were imported and exported, respectively, through this port. This places Kowloon fourth in foreign trade among Chinese ports. The chief import items of 1946 were gasoline, raw cotton, kerosene, vehicles, iron and steel, rubber and rubber goods, paper, and salted fishery products. Major exports were lumber, tung oil, eggs and egg products, peanut oil, cotton piece goods, and soybean.

Kowloon is capable of handling 30,000,000 tons of cargo per annum.

CHANKIANG (KWANGCHOWWAN)

Kwangchowwan (bay) is situated along the eastern shore of Luichow peninsula, Kwangtung province, with four satellite isles around it. It was leased to France as a naval base in 1898 and was returned to China in 1945. It was then renamed Chankiang and was created an ordinary municipality under the Kwangtung provincial government.

The bay has a length of 48 km., a width of some 2.2 km., and an area of 149.75 sq. km. The water depth varies from 7 to 40 m. and is generally about 10 m. deep near the port.

Customs reports indicate that Chankiang handled CNC$7,050,514,000 worth of trade in 1946, including CNC$4,478,806,000 worth of imports and CNC$2,517,708,000 worth of exports. The volume of trade will be greatly increased when the proposed railway is built to link the port with various parts of Kwangtung and Kwangsi. The yearly cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 200,000 tons.

Chief items of export are sugar, fruits, lumber, and tung oil. Leading imports are railway equipment, gasoline, and cotton piecegoods. Most export goods are sent to Kowloon for re-export.

CANTON

(1) *Location*. Canton (23° 7′ N. and 113° 14′ E.) is situated on the Pearl river. It prospered after opening as one of the five treaty ports following the Treaty of Nanking of 1842, which concluded the Opium War. The Pearl river and its upper reaches drain a large area of Kwangsi and Kwangtung. Most of the shipping to and from these provinces, and to a considerable extent to and from Hunan, Yunnan, and Kweichow, are delivered through Canton. A special municipality directly under the Executive Yuan, Canton has a population of 1,128,065.

(2) *Harbor*. There are two harbors in Canton. The inner harbor rides on both banks of the Pearl river below Shameen, where the water is generally from 3 to 8 m. deep. Ships of not more than 500 tons can reach the front water passage, while the rear passage is accessible only to shallow draft vessels. The outer harbor is at Whampoa, 18 km. east of Canton. The water depth is from 6.5 to 9 m., and from 6 to 10 m. along the navigational passage where vessels of deep draft must berth. The difference between high and low tidal marks is about 1.6 meters.

Subtropical climate prevails in Canton, but as the monsoon blows frequently it is not hot in summer. The average temperature for summer is 28.2°C. and that for the winter is 13.4°C. with an annual average of 21.8°C. The precipitation is 1,796 mm. per annum and the year's rainy days average about 151.

(3) *Harbor Facilities*. On both sides of the front water passage of the inner harbor (the Long Dike area), there are 117 wharves. Eleven are mostly of concrete construction. The outer harbor has a wharf of 400 m. long, equipped with a 5-ton crane. Two markings are set up at a length of 220 and 260 m. over the wharf. Most of its godowns are in a state of disrepair.

Construction of the new Whampoa harbor was started in 1948 and was scheduled for completion in two years. When completed it will be the largest port in south China.

(4) *Trade*. Canton is the leading port in south China and ranks third in commercial importance. Customs statistics place the total value of trade in 1946 at CNC$83,053,791,000. Of this the imports made up CNC$47,013,628,000, second in China's total import trade. The exports accounted for CNC$36,040,163,000, third in China's total export trade. The principal imports in 1946 were raw cotton, paper, mineral oils, rubber goods, iron and steel, flour, and aluminum. The chief exports were tung oil, raw silk, tin, lumber, and cotton piece goods. As Canton is close to the free port of Hongkong, smuggling is rampant. An anti-smuggling agreement was concluded between the Chinese and Hongkong governments early in 1948, but up to September of that year its provisions were not fully implemented.

Canton's cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 8,340,000 tons per annum.

KEELUNG

(1) *Location*. Keelung (25° 20′ N. and 121° 40′ E.) is an important port in north Taiwan. The port is 132,031 sq. km. in area. Construction on the harbor started as early as 1871 under the reign of the Manchu dynasty. After the cession of Taiwan to Japan in 1895, it became a Japanese naval base. World War II brought to it considerable destruction, but recovery has been rapid since the end of the war. Taiwan returned to China in 1945. Keelung is now the seventh largest city in Taiwan, with a population of 123,000.

(2) *Harbor*. Having a good amount of corrugated natural frontage and many isles around its narrow mouth, Keelung makes an excellent naval base. Its average water depth is 9 meters.

Northwest winds prevail most of the year with an average velocity of 2.7 m. per second, the heaviest winds generally in the winter. The average temperature is 22°C. with an average summer temperature of 26°C. and an average winter temperature of 14°C. Slight earth tremors occur somewhat frequently.

The large number of rainy days—224 out of 365 days a year—is as much an advantage to agriculture as it is an obstruction to navigation. The annual precipitation in 1944 was registered at 3,294.5 mm.

(3) *Harbor Facilities*. Keelung possesses many wharves with a total length of 8,712 m. At the beginning of 1946, available water frontage was 2,212.90 m. in length. It was extended to 2,647.60 m. at the end of the year, sufficient to berth 30 vessels of considerable size at one time, including some of 10,000 and 20,000 tons.

There are four breakwaters. Those at Hsientung and Shehliaotao are 32,730 and 23,640 m., respectively. Completed before the war, neither sustained war damage. The other two are located at the eastern and western sides of the outer harbor. Work on them was partially completed before the war, but some sections were destroyed by air bombing. They are now extended to 20,000 and 55,000 m., respectively. The bombed blocks have also been repaired.

Keelung's storage capacity was 134,710 tons in prewar years. During the war, godowns with a total capacity of 11,499 tons were destroyed, and several others with a capacity of 21,255 tons were seriously damaged. Storage space for about 102,006 tons still needs repair. There are 14 cranes still usable—one 35-ton crane and 13 traveling electric cranes (one 30-ton, two 10-ton and ten 5-ton).

There are two markings in the outer harbor and two warning buoys in the dredging area. Out of the nine mooring buoys, six are in good condition. There are also three docks capable of accommodating 20,000-ton, 10,000-ton, and 3,000-ton vessels, respectively. Three canals, linking the harbor with the interior, are 2,847.70 m. in length.

There are two fuel boats and a 54-meter belt of water frontage reserved for the loading and unloading of coal and other fuel.

(4) *Trade*. In 1946 Keelung registered the arrival of 318 large vessels, 412 steam launches, and 1,477 launches and other native craft. Net tonnage totaled 1,678,603 tons (not including warships). In the same year, departures from this port totaled 309 large vessels, 390 steam launches, and 1,597 native launches—aggregating 1,646,974 tons.

The chief exports are coal, sugar, tea, fruits, cement, and rice. In 1946, the volume of export trade was 635,739 tons, the bulk of which was coal and sugar. Principal import items are cotton cloth, drugs, flour, beans, cereals, industrial materials, and mineral oils. Altogether 168,464 tons of imports were registered in 1946. In volume, Keelung seems to have struck a favorable balance in trade, but in cash value imports exceed exports.

Keelung has an estimated cargo handling capacity of 9,420,000 tons. The value of its trade in 1946 was CNC$1,823,807,000, of which CNC$1,206,421,000 represented imports, and CNC$617,386,000 exports.

Antung

(1) *Location.* Antung (40° 15′ N. and 124° 25′ E.) is a port of great military importance in China's northeast, lying on the western bank of the Yalu river, the border between China and Korea. It is about 40 km. from the estuary of the river where, during Japanese occupation, a Tatung harbor was planned for a point 30 km. southwest of Antung. That harbor, had it been constructed, would have been northeastern China's most promising warm water port. Antung is a thriving industrial and commercial center. Its population is around 315,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Antung harbor depths vary to a considerable degree. In the vicinity of the railway bridge, it is about 3.6 m. below low water and 6 m. below high water; while at Wutaokou, this is reduced to one meter below low water and 3.3 m. below high water. Santaolangtou, the entrance of the harbor, is accessible only to vessels of not more than 3,000 tons.

The projected ice-free Tatung harbor is about 30 km. southwest of Antung city. It extends from the mouth of the tributary of Chaotzekow southwestward towards the tip of the western bank of the Yalu river. The Yalu river is 6.7 km. in width at its mouth, its current being split into two channels by several isles. On the western channel will lie the new Tatung harbor. The depth here generally ranges between six and eight meters. The isles at the mouth protect the harbor from wind and wave action.

The average temperature at Antung is 9°C. In the winter the thermometer drops to 12°C. below zero. There is a period of intense heat in the summer, which generally lasts for one month. Precipitation of about 700-900 mm. per annum is an advantage enjoyed over other north China ports. Freezing of the Yalu river for four months in the winter diverts much of the trade which normally would be routed through Antung.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There is a considerable stretch of water frontage at Antung. Under the management of the Japanese South Manchurian railway, 2,069 m. of frontage were built, including 906 m. of masonry and 1,162 m. of wooden pilings. On the upper stretch of the bank, the local Chamber of Commerce constructed 1,000 m. of stone frontage. Further upstream there is another section of stone frontage with a length of 500 m. Besides, British shipping companies had built 36 m. of wooden frontage for private use. However, there is scarcely enough mooring space deep enough to accommodate sizable ships. Dredging is, therefore, necessary. At present, most vessels entering or leaving the harbor have to berth at such places as Santaolangtou, Changtao, Tatungkow, and Tissutao with motor launches shuttling back and forth to load and unload cargo and passengers.

The covered storage capacity totals about 5,000 tons.

Port Arthur

Port Arthur (38° 48′ N and 121° 20′ E.) is situated on the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula which, together with the Shantung peninsula on the other side of the Pohai (sea), forms the Liaotung gulf. Since its construction into a naval base in the Manchu dynasty, it has virtually been the lock of Liaotung gulf. After the first Sino-Japanese war, Port Arthur, together with the port of Dairen, was leased to Russia. After the Russo-Japanese war in 1904, it was transferred to the Japanese. Following V-J Day, it became a naval base for the joint use of China and Russia, in accordance with the Sino-Soviet treaty of 1945.

The harbor is bound on the east by the Golden Hill and on the west by the Tiger Tail peninsula, both being mountainous cliffs with a gap of less than 300 m., through which warships of considerable size can pass only one at a time. Inside the gap, there is a spacious water area consisting of two bays. The eastern bay measures 400 by 270 m. with a depth of 11 to 13 m. below the low water mark. The western one has an area three times as large but is generally only about 10 m. deep. The former is able to accommodate seven big war vessels simultaneously while the latter, only shallow draft vessels.

In point of trade, Port Arthur is far less flourishing than its sister port, Dairen, which has similar features of climate. Average temperature is 10°C. throughout the year and annual rainfall amounts to about 500 mm. In the winter Port Arthur does not freeze as badly as Dairen.

No figures regarding the present status of harbor facilities are available, as the port is still under Russian occupation. While under Japanese rule, Port Arthur's average amount of trade was 59,861 tons of imports and 55,760 tons of exports a year. Its estimated cargo handling capacity, according to the Ministry of Communications, is about 598,000 tons a year.

Yingkow (Newchwang)

(1) *Location.* Yingkow (40° 48′ N. and 122° 20′ E.) is located at the estuary of the Liao river, 19.5 km. from the sea. The importance of Yingkow as a port has been greatly reduced since the completion of the South Manchuria railway, now part of the Chinese Changchun railway, which ends at Dairen. Before then, almost all products from the Liao river valley were concentrated at Yingkow for shipment. The other factor in its loss of commercial importance is its undesirability as a harbor as compared with Dairen.

(2) *Harbor.* The estuary upon which Yingkow is located is bugle-shaped, with a width of 780 meters. The 400 m. Liao river is the second important artery for the Sungari-Liao basin. The harbor has a range of depth between two and eight meters. At high tide, which is about five meters, vessels of more than five meters draft have no difficulty entering or leaving.

Temperature is between 36°C. to 30°C. below zero, with an average of 8.5°C. Rainfall is recorded at 600-700 mm. per annum; there are less than 70 rainy days a year. The frosting season begins by October 12 and ends by April 13; the snow season lasts from November to March. The harbor is frozen for three months in the winter.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The harbor has a total length of 5,150 meters. This limited space is generally reserved for anchorage of steamers while at places below the western boundary launches can take berth.

Before the communist occupation, there was a length of 4,026 m. of wharves with a storage capacity of 138,000 tons. One dredge was constantly at work. From the harbor down to the sea there were about 30 markings. However, bigger vessels were warned not to sail at night pending improvement of the passage. The harbor can accommodate thirty-four 4,000-ton ships.

(4) *Trade.* In recent years the main items of export were soybeans, bean oil, bean cake, fishery products, and salt, while the leading imports were machinery and spare parts, industrial materials, cotton goods, prepared skin and fur. The value of the import trade for 1946, according to the Chinese Maritime Customs, was CNC$496,867,000. The annual cargo-handling capacity of Yingkow is rated at 720,000 tons.

Chinwangtao

(1) *Location.* Chinwangtao (39° 55′ N. and 119° 38′ E.) is situated on a small peninsula in the Gulf of Chihli, connected by a branch line with the Peiping-Mukden railway. Tangku is 175 km. to the southwest. The freezing season is rather short and not severe. Thus, Chinwangtao often replaces other north China ports in the handling of winter cargoes. Peitaiho, a suburban town to the southwest, is a summer resort.

The harbor was built by the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company in 1901-02 and was later bought by the Kailan Mining Administration.

(2) *Harbor.* The site of Chinwangtao harbor is on the western side of a small finger-shaped peninsula. It is 0.371 km. long with an area of a little below one sq. km. As it is not far from the deep water line of the sea, the water depth ranges up to 36 m. The terrain shields the harbor from cyclones and wave action.

The monsoons bring this harbor a rather mild summer climate. The winters are colder than in Peiping. Temperatures range between 25°C. to 6°C. below zero, with 9.9°C. as the average. Annual precipitation is 666 mm. with rainy days numbering about 68 a year. From October to January, the harbor is covered with thin ice, but ships can enter without the aid of ice-breakers.

The main facilities include two wharves with a total length of 670.5 m., a number of godowns with 30,000 tons storage capacity, two cranes, and two dredges.

(3) *Trade.* This port owes its prosperity to the near-by coal mines at Kaiping. Luanhsien, Shihmenchai and Liukiang, and cement, machinery, and glass manufacturing mills at Tangshan. In the winter, it attracts trade from ice-bound Tientsin.

In 1946, its shipping business was CNC$7,417,085,000, holding the eleventh place in the nation's total trade. Of this, CNC$5,647,032,000 was for exports and CNC$1,770,036,000 for imports. The

leading imported goods were hardware, cotton yarn, industrial materials, and mineral oils.

Annual cargo handling capacity of Chinwangtao is estimated at 4,990,000 tons.

Chefoo

(1) *Location*. Chefoo (37° 33′ N. and 121° 22′ E.) faces the Yellow Sea, flanked by the Sulphur Hill at its rear and Chefoo peninsula on the northeast. Together with Port Arthur, it controls the Pohai straits. It serves as the port for the Shantung peninsula, and was once an important naval base.

(2) *Harbor*. Surrounding the eastern tip of the Chefoo peninsula and the Chefoo hill is a large expanse of water known as Chefoo bay. At the southeastern end of the bay Chefoo harbor is located. Outside the bay is Kungtung island, which serves as a barrier for the harbor.

Chefoo harbor is 5.38 sq. km. in area with an average water depth of six meters, the greatest depth being 68 m. Another natural advantage is absence of silting.

The temperature ranges between 38°C. and 12°C. below zero, with 12.3°C. as the average. It does not freeze in winter, although small icebergs occasionally can be found from December to February. Annual rainfall is 600-700 mm., and rainy days number about 60 to 80 a year. The difference between high and low tidal marks is 2.3 meters.

(3) *Harbor Facilities*. There are two breakwaters—one on the northeast and the other on the west, with a total length of 1,920 meters. The northeastern breakwater parallels the harbor, and halves the harbor entrance. Mooring spaces are mainly along the southwestern foot of Chefoo hill. There are three major wharves.

Repeated communist attacks and dwindling purchasing power brought Chefoo's once flourishing trade to a standstill. In 1933 its imports and exports were CNC$7,565,000 and CNC$10,339,000, respectively. Main export goods were raw silk, straw braid for hats, soybean, and grape wine. The leading imports were flour, cotton cloth, and other staples.

Weihaiwei

(1) *Location*. Weihaiwei (37° 30′ N. and 122° E.) is on the Yellow Sea, shielded by Liukung island and surrounded by sheltering hills. It was once a Chinese naval base. Leased to Britain in 1898, it was returned to China in 1930.

(2) *Harbor Facilities*. The eastern channel of the divided harbor mouth is 6.48 by 4.63 km., with depths between 16.4 and 5.9 meters. The western channel is 4.63 by 2.78 km., with depths between 36.6 and 5.9 meters. The western channel is, therefore, much more serviceable. Liukung island is three km. by two km. with an elevation of 160 m. above sea level. On the north, it is surrounded by steep precipices.

The average temperature is 12.2°C. Summer and winter extremities are 36.5°C. and 11°C. below zero, respectively. The harbor and the adjoining sea is ice-free. Annual precipitation is 50 mm. during 80 rainy days.

Before the war there were seven wharves, five lighterages, three buoys, and one beacon. Cargo-handling capacity was estimated at 600,000 tons a year.

Chief items of export were straw braid for hats, raw silk, and fruits. Import items were flour, cotton cloth, and beans.

Lienyun (Lien Yun Harbor)

(1) *Location*. Lienyun (34° 40′ N. and 119° 30′ E.) is on the north Kiangsu coast. On the west is Silien island, and beyond the harbor is Yuntai mountain. The Lunghai railway starts from here running through central China to Shensi and Kansu provinces.

(2) *Harbor*. The harbor is shielded from the open sea by the Tunglien and Silien islands, which are three to four km. apart, forming a water passage of considerable depth. Around these islands silt and mud accumulate rapidly. Due to silt, the average depth of the harbor is now about four meters. The harbor bed at Laoyao is solid enough for the building of new wharves and other parts of the bed, chiefly composed of sand, are suitable for anchorage.

Northeast, northwest and southeast winds prevail through most of the year. The harbor is well protected on the southwest and northwest.

The average temperature is 15.2°C., with summer and winter extremities at 39°C. and 2°C. below zero. Annual precipitation is 700 mm. and the number of rainy days ranges from 70 to 90.

(3) *Harbor Facilities*. A 350-meter pier, seven m. high and 50 m. wide, projects into the sea. The 125 meters of frontage can handle three 3,000-ton vessels. There are two cranes and one warehouse measuring 100 by 20 m. on the pier. The wharves have a total length of 1,329 meters.

After years of neglect, a large part of the harbor is now silted. The water area in front of the wharves is so shallow that no ships above 1,000 tons can berth there safely.

Total storage capacity was estimated at 200 tons. The harbor once had a cargo-handling capacity of 300,000 tons.

Ningpo

(1) *Location*. Ningpo (29° 48′ N. and 121° 35′ E.) is situated on the Yung river, 26 km. from the sea. It was opened as a treaty port at the end of the Opium War. It now has a population of 250,000.

(2) *Harbor*. The water depth of the Yung river ranges up to 17 m. at the mouth and to 5.5 at Ningpo harbor, which measures 1,853 by 270 meters. The Yung river originates in the Szeming mountains and has only a meagre volume of water, leaving Ningpo little hope for further development.

The temperature ranges between 20°C. and 0°C., with an average of 16.1°C. Annual rainfall is 1,600 mm., with 110 to 120 rainy days.

Prevailing summer winds are southeasterly while northwest winds prevail in the winter. Typhoons and frequent storms come during July, August, and September.

(3) *Harbor Facilities*. There are 13 wharves with a total length of about 330 meters. The storage capacity was estimated at 24,000 tons. Ningpo, being a river port, can accommodate sea-going vessels up to 2,000 tons. Chenhai is thus often used as Ningpo's outer harbor.

(4) *Trade*. Ningpo's trade is mostly regional. Leading items of import are textile and consumer goods. Exports include tea, raw cotton, lumber, and fishery products.

Besides those on the regular Shanghai-Ningpo run, vessels going down to the South Seas usually stop here. The total value of Ningpo's trade for 1946 was CNC$133,847,000, most of which was made up of imports.

Yungkia (Wenchow)

(1) *Location*. Yungkia (28° 1′ N. and 120° 38′ E.) is located on the southern bank of the Ou river, 30 km. from the sea. This harbor is seriously hampered by Wenchow island, which is situated in the middle of the estuary of the Ou river. This cuts the current into two channels dotted with small shoals. In Chekiang province, Yungkia is second to Ningpo in importance.

(2) *Harbor*. The Ou river originates in the Hsienhsia mountains. It is 460.8 km. long and has many rapids. Only the section below Sungyang is navigable. Steamers can sail up river for 52 km. and steam launches for 69 km. to Chingtien. Wenchow bay, although nine meters deep at some places, is choked with silt. The average harbor depth is 4.4 meters. The marginal space of water is too shallow to handle sizable ships.

The temperature varies between 38.5°C. and −2°C., with an average of 18.5°C. Southeast winds prevail in the summer. Annual rainy days number around 145 and the precipitation is 1,721 mm. a year. Late in the summer, typhoons often enter the continent through this port. The tide rises to a height of six meters.

The harbor has inadequate facilities. In the prewar years, besides 11 pontoon wharves, there was not a single stationary wharf. Since V-J Day little improvement has been made.

(3) *Trade*. Trade here is mostly conducted with Shanghai, Foochow, and Keelung. Chief imports are cotton cloth and other manufactured goods. Main exports are tea, leather products, straw mats, and paper. Yungkia lags far behind Ningpo in prosperity.

Cargo-handling capacity can be boosted to 2,000,000 tons a year by improved harbor facilities.

Foochow

(1) *Location*. Foochow (25° 59′ N. and 119° 27′ E.) is situated on the northern bank of the Min river, about five km. from the sea. Its commercial center, Nantai island, is in the middle of the river. The harbor is too shallow to berth sizable vessels; these invariably moor at Mawei (Mamoi) harbor, 25 km. to the east, which has long been a Chinese naval base. Foochow now has a population of about 300,000.

(2) *Harbor*. The mouth of the Min river is divided into two channels by Huangchi island. In the northern channel the water passage is along a line close to the northern bank. Barred by Foochi Isle and impeded by heavy sediment at its mouth, the southern channel is of less navigational value. Most ships, therefore, berth at wharves along the northern channel. Water depths at the estuary range between five and 20 m., and at Mawei up to 26 meters. Foochow harbor water depth falls to three meters. Cargoes are moved with the aid of small steamboats and launches.

The climate here is of a subtropical character with abundant rainfall and great humidity. The average temperature is 19.8°C., with the maximum and minimum at 37°C. and 0°C., respectively. Annual precipitation is 1,440 to 1,500 mm. a year and rainy days vary between 100 and 120 a year. The tide reaches a height

of 4.5 meters. Typhoons occasionally sweep over with a high velocity.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Shipping here is mostly carried on with Formosa, as it was before the war. There are 31 wharves and 10 pontoons, and 39 navigational markings, including four lighthouses, 17 buoys, and 14 sign posts. Storage capacity has been reduced by war to 7,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* In October, 1946, export trade reached CNC$6,065,752,815, of which native products accounted for CNC$5,502,944,430, a little over 90%. These products include lumber, tea, dry bamboo shoots, paper, lacquer ware, mushrooms, and sugar. During the same period, the value of imports was CNC$4,819,638,238, consisting principally of cotton cloth and yarn and soybeans.

Cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 2,090,000 tons.

AMOY

(1) *Location.* Amoy (24° 26′ N. and 118° 4′ E.) is situated in Quemoy bay. It is a small island with an elevation of five meters and an area of 117 sq. km. Closely adjoining is Quemoy island. Amoy is connected by ferry with Sungyu, railway town on the mainland. It was opened as a treaty port at the end of the Opium War and now has a population of 124,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Quemoy bay extends to Weitou in the north, and to Chenhai cape in the south. It is 50 km. wide at its mouth and is deeper south of Quemoy island than on the north.

There are two harbors at Amoy. The outer harbor is between Kulangsu and the mainland and is exposed to the southwest winds. The inner harbor is between Kulangsu and Amoy island. The former measures 3.63 sq. km. with a maximum depth of nine meters, while the latter is 1.28 sq. km. with depths ranging between seven and 25 meters. The average water depth in the mooring area is nine to 12 meters.

The tide sometimes rises over five meters. Temperatures reach 36°C. in the summer and 5°C. in the winter. Annual precipitation is 1,179 mm. in 80 to 110 rainy days.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The inner harbor is generally designated as the harbor of Amoy. A windbreak has been built to provide a haven for seagoing vessels in case of storm. Opposite Kulangsu island are wharves with a total length of 140 meters.

The sheltered storage capacity is estimated at 7,000 tons. Further development of Amoy harbor is handicapped by the lack of adequate communication facilities to link it with the interior.

(4) *Trade.* Amoy usually registers an unfavorable balance of trade. In 1946, the volume of trade totaled CNC$10,433,097,000, ninth place in the nation's total. Of this figure, imports made up of CNC$7,681,291,000. Leading imports were manufactured goods, kerosene, cotton yarn, and cloth. Major exports were longan fruit, camphor, sugar, and tobacco.

SWATOW

(1) *Location.* Swatow (23° 21′ N. and 116° 40′ E.) is located at the estuary of the Han river, with Tahao island serving as a shield. The biggest port in east Kwangtung, it is a major outlet for the farm products of the Han river delta. Ships plying the south China coast usually stop here. Thus far it has not completely emerged from its wartime decline in commerce. Present population is about 159,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Swatow harbor measures 5.81 sq. km. Water depths range to 20 meters. As the estuary silts heavily, it compares unfavorably with the harbor of Amoy. In the middle of the water passage is Fangchi hill, which can be built into a good fort. Average depth of the harbor is about six meters.

Summer temperatures rise to 38°C., winter temperatures fall to 4°C., with a yearly average of 22°C. There is hardly any snow. Annual precipitation is 1,250 to 1,400 mm. The tide rises three meters. Typhoons occasionally touch this harbor.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Before the war there were five wharves, eight pontoons, and one crane. The harbor markings include six lighthouses, three buoys, and one sign post. Considerable war damage was suffered by these wharf facilities, reducing storage capacity to 13,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* Swatow ranks sixth in the nation's trading ports. Leading exports are sugar, tobacco, and paper. Chief imports are cotton yarn and cloth, kerosene, rice, and matches. In 1946, trade totaled CNC$32,092,715,000, of which CNC$20,529,961,000 was for imports and CNC$11,562,754,000 for exports. Cargo-handling capacity is about 5,000,000 tons a year.

KUNGPEI

Kungpei (22° 10′ N. and 113° 31′ E.) is situated on Maliu island, near Macao. Opened in 1887, it has become an important transshipment point between Canton and Macao. Average depth is 8.5 meters. Vessels up to 2,000 tons can enter the port safely. With the silting of Macao harbor, Kungpei is becoming increasingly prosperous.

The leading export goods are silk and silk piecegoods, straw mats, tobacco, fruits, lumber, eggs, sugar, and tea. Main imports are cotton yarn and cloth, flour, kerosene, and rice flour.

Total cargo-handling capacity is about 200,000 tons.

KONGMOON

Kongmoon harbor (22° 26′ N. and 113° 5′ E.) is at the lower reaches of the West river and five km. from Kongmoon. It has a water frontage of 1,000 m. and water depth below low water averages about three meters. Out of seven wharves, totaling 207 m. long, only two remain serviceable.

In 1946, trade totaled CNC$8,611,690,000, of which exports were CNC$4,978,866,000 and imports CNC$3,632,824,000. Chief imports are tung oil, lumber, eggs, peanut oil, and tea. Cargo-handling capacity is about 200,000 tons.

PAKHOI

Pakhoi (21° 28′ N. and 109° 5′ E.) is situated on the western side of the Luichow peninsula. There the Lien river empties into the sea. Pakhoi bay is 11 km. long and 36 km. wide, covering an area of 528 sq. km. Water depths vary between 0.3 and 6.4 meters. In the harbor a depth of 6.4 m. is maintained by dredging. Vessels up to 3,000 tons can use the harbor safely. Communication lines with the interior are inadequate.

Warm and humid, the climate is subtropical in character. The average temperature is 22.6°C. Summer and winter extremities are 42°C. and 7°C., respectively. Annual precipitation is 1,300 mm., with 115 rainy days.

Most of Pakhoi's trade is with Indo-China. Leading items of export are fruits, sugar, lumber, and tung oil; while rice and cotton yarn occupy top places in its import trade. Annual cargo-handling capacity is about 550,000 tons.

HOIKOW

Hoikow (20° 3′ N. and 110° 15′ E.) is the ranking port of Hainan island. Across the channel from Hoikow is the Luichow peninsula. The harbor covers an area of 42.7 sq. km. Water depths are between 0.5 m. and 11.5 m. Marginal water space is shallow. Seagoing vessels anchor 3 km. off shore and cargo is moved by launches. Tides are irregular and typhoons frequently hit this port.

The average temperature is 25°C. Minimum low temperature in winter is 20°C., the summer maximum is 28.5°C. Annual precipitation is 1,500 mm. and rainy days number about 110.

Hoikow port was opened in 1858. It handles more than half the trade of Hainan island. Major exports are cattle, poultry, hides, sugar, sesame seed, melon seed, rattan, salt, and betel-nut. Chief imports are cotton cloth, kerosene, rice, and sugar.

Annual cargo-handling capacity is 1,280,000 tons.

YULIN

Yulin (18° 15′ N. and 109° 35′ E.), 40 km. from Aihsien on the southern extremity of Hainan island, is suitable for a naval base. Proximity to the Paracels islands gives it additional strategical importance.

There are two harbors. The inner harbor measures 20 sq. km., with water depths between 5 and 12 m. Its gateway is about 1 km. long and 30 m. wide. The outer harbor can be used for commercial shipping. Spacious and deep, depths vary between 10 and 30 m. The inner harbor is capable of berthing about ten 1,000-ton vessels, while the outer harbor can accommodate 10,000-ton vessels.

Yulin is protected from heavy winds. In 1905, the Russian Baltic fleet refueled here before moving northward to engage the Japanese. After V-J Day, work was started to convert it into a naval base.

KAOHSIUNG

(1) *Location.* Kaohsiung (22° 15′ N. and 120° 37′ E.) is situated on southern Taiwan. During the Ming dynasty, many immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien settled here. By 1933, it was one of Taiwan's leading industrial and commercial centers. The port sustained great war damage from American air-bombing. Kaohsiung is the third largest city in Taiwan, with a population of 211,000.

(2) *Harbor.* The harbor area is 1,567.64 sq. km., with a water depth varying between five and nine meters. Its bottom is chiefly composed of sand. The tide advances from the southeast direction at a speed of three miles per hour. The average difference between high and low tidal marks is about one meter.

Monsoons blow from November to March and typhoons visit this port occasionally from June to September. Velocity of the northwest winds is 28 m. per second and that of the southwestern winds about 14 meters. Temperatures vary between 32.75°C. and 14.79°C., with an average of 24.42°C.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There is a total wharf length of 3,200 m., capable of accommodating one 3,000-ton vessel, two 5,000-ton vessels, thirteen 8,000-ton vessels, and three 10,000-ton vessels. The southern breakwater is 938 m. long and the northern one 9,388 meters. A few war-damaged piers have been completely repaired. Of 25 godowns, nine have been repaired since V-J Day. With new storage space they have a capacity of 330,000 tons.

One 50-ton crane, two 15-ton, and three 5-ton are in disrepair. Coal storage facilities cover 18,841 sq. m., and 29 pumps supply fresh water at a rate of 2,197 tons per hour.

The port has four tugboats and a dock capable of handling one 1,000-ton ship. Of three lighthouses, those on the northern and southern breakwaters are out of commission. Five guarding posts and one buoy also need repair.

The harbor, which is being dredged, will eventually accommodate large ocean liners with a cargo-handling capacity of 730,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* The year 1946 registered a large favorable trade balance. The value of imports were CNC$122,405,000 as against CNC$5,412,000,000 for exports. Imports included foodstuffs, cotton cloth, fuel, tobacco, wine, and drugs. Rice, fruits, textile goods, and hardware constituted the bulk of exports.

The agricultural importance of Kaohsiung lies in its abundance of rice, sweet potatoes, and sugar. The annual crop yield, plus that of peanuts, beans, and other farm products, is valued at about CNC$69,724,929 in Taiwan currency.

No less important is Kaohsiung's industrial enterprise. There are 10 textile mills, 13 metallurgical and 10 chemical plants, two electric works, 50 machine tool factories, 38 pottery and porcelain makers, 19 oil and sugar refineries, 22 carpentry and saw mills, 60 food processing factories, four printing plants, and six unclassified factories.

CHAPTER 4

A BRIEF HISTORY OF CHINA

The Chinese are heirs to the most ancient living culture that can be traced back in an unbroken line, historically to 2205 B.C. and in legend to 2697 B.C. It is true that many details of this continuity are still lacking, but enough is known to establish some general facts. The most ancient home of Chinese culture was the middle Yellow river valley. Later on the Yangtze valley and other regions to the south came within the scope of ancient China.

Physically, the neolithic people of north China were of the same stock as present day northern Chinese and they extended into the northeast and northwest. A kindred physical type was found in south China. Studies of the "Peking Man" reveal that the neolithic men in north China were descended from a paleolithic stock native to the same region.

THE PROTO-CHINESE

The proto-Chinese lived mainly on hunting, fishing, and a primitive agriculture. The discovery of "painted pottery" and "black pottery," as well as bronze objects near Anyang in northern Honan province, supports the probability of continued Chinese culture from the Stone Age to the Bronze Age. However, evidence to demonstrate the step-by-step evolution of the proto-Chinese is still incomplete.

Transition from the Stone Age to the Bronze Age occurred around 2000 B.C. A proto-feudalism came into existence with the appearance of tribes, nobility, ecclesiastics, and farming commoners. By 1700 B.C., from perhaps thousands of tribes, emerged two, known as the Hsia and Shang. The Hsia, in modern Shansi province, was at first the stronger. Thus Hsia, or Hua Hsia, became the collective name for the Chinese race. After one century, Shang became stronger and its chief, Cheng Tang, defeated Hsia and was acknowledged the overlord. He established the first loosely organized semi-feudal empire with Honan province as his base.

In 1300 B.C., Pan Keng, King of Shang, styled the Son of Heaven, established his capital at Yin, the modern Anyang in Honan. The empire of this overlord of the tribes was somewhat feudal in character.

About 1100 B.C., a new power, the Chou tribe, rose in the west. It overwhelmed the Shang tribe and took over Chinese overlordship in 1027 B.C. The empire was distributed by the Chou ruler as fiefs among his brothers, nephews, sons, cousins, and a few loyal ministers. It was the only full-fledged feudal empire in Chinese history.

About 900 B.C., the feudal empire of Chou began to show symptoms of decay. The princes had become stronger and, by constant warfare, a number of the weaker states were eliminated. The remaining strong states defied the authority of the Son of Heaven. The western barbarians, at the instigation of the princes if not with their actual assistance, defeated the Chou overlord and overran the royal domain in modern Shensi province near Sian. Ping Wang (770-720 B.C.) moved his capital to the eastern capital, Loyi, the modern Loyang, and the dynasty was afterwards known as the Tung Chou (East Chou). It brought about the Chunchiu (Spring and Autumn) era, with the states dominant while the overlord was reduced to a figurehead.

Four states stood out in the last centuries of feudal turmoil. They were *Chi* in the east, *Tsin* in the north, *Chin* in the west, and *Chu* in the south. The entire era was marked by constant struggle for the hegemonic title among the four states. Later *Wu*, a fifth state in present-day Kiangsu province, joined the conflict for this title, which was conferred from time to time by the Chou overlord as his only function of state in that era.

The states were ruled by hereditary nobles. The common people had little to

do with politics. In Chin and Chu feudalism had disappeared. Tsin was still feudal in character and was the first of the four dominant states to collapse. It was divided into three smaller states, ending the Chun-chiu period and ushering in the "Era of the Contending States."

ANCIENT PHILOSOPHY

These two periods saw the flowering of ancient Chinese philosophy. Philosophers, mostly from the privileged class, were of three schools. First, there were those who led in the overthrow of the old order, as represented by Teng Hsi. Second, there were the pessimists, as represented by Lao Tze, who believed the situation was hopeless and decided to save themselves by fleeing the world. The third school was represented by Confucius, who worshipped the age that had passed or was passing and devoted himself to preaching a return to the former days.

The political upheaval resulting from the latter part of the Chun-chiu era brought about a very significant revolution in Chinese political history. The state was no longer feudal in character but a centralized body-politic. The nobility had no control over politics, the princes being absolute rulers. All men were nominally equal before the law. Soldiery was no longer a monopoly of the nobles but a universal service; conscription became a recognized practice. Hand in hand with war and bloodshed, philosophy attained its golden age in this era. Although abstract thought was not neglected, the philosophers were interested in the pressing problems presented by the current political and social anarchy and offered plans for the unification or pacification of the world. The passive school, as represented by Taoists, dialecticians and Yang Chu, was more or less influenced by the Chun-chiu pessimists. They advocated personal development and individual salvation. The active school, represented by Confucians, Mencians, and Legalists, was busily offering cures for the ills of the world.

The Era of Contending States ended in 221 B.C., when Chin Shih Huang Ti defeated the remaining six states and established a centralized Chinese Empire. This opened the age of united empire in Chinese history. From then on, unity became the normal condition and disunity a temporary interlude. Imperial unity was consolidated by the Chin and Han dynasties within the three centuries between 221 B.C. and A.D. 88. The Chinese political structure and territorial limits took shape in this stage. The Chinese kinship system, a development of the feudal clan system, also took its permanent form in this stage to dominate the Chinese social structure, while Confucianism was established as a state dogma.

Teaching loyalty and filial piety, Confucianism upheld the *status quo* and was therefore encouraged by the ruling class. Confucius was converted into a somewhat mystical personage. Taoism became a religious practice of charms and the transmutation of metals. The Ying Yang, another Chun-chiu school of thought, degenerated into a study of the five elements of nature: metal, wood, water, fire and earth. In addition, they believed in signs of fortune and misfortune, lucky and unlucky days.

After the reign of Han Ho Ti (A.D. 89-105) there was an important period of transition. After three centuries of consolidation and unification, the empire began to decline. Barbarians, with lower cultural development but stronger military power, overran the provinces on the northern frontier. Repeated insurrections and barbarian invasions shook the empire to its foundation, finally dividing it into more than half a dozen fragments. After the short period of the Three Kingdoms (A.D. 220-265), the Tsin dynasty unified the empire again.

A period of spiritual decadence set in as Confucianism became a system of pedantic erudition and dry ceremonial, with no inspiration for the masses or the intellectuals. The latter indulged in a corrupt form of Taoism. Known as "Pure Discourse," it was an excuse for nihilistic behavior. It denied all the ritual and moral code of Confucianism. Adherents drank to excess and ridiculed and insulted the people of the world in every possible manner. This philosophy could not be understood or afforded by the common people, who found comfort in a simpler brand of Taoism which crystallized into the Taoist religion in the second century A.D. It was under such conditions that Buddhism was introduced, probably at the beginning of the first century A.D. At first obscure and negligible, by the third century Buddhism became a great influence in spreading China's civilization to the barbarians, who had become a serious menace to the political and racial integrity of the empire.

Beginning with A.D. 300, eight princes of the House of Tsin participated in a melee of civil wars, struggling for power. In A.D. 304, the Hsiung-nu (Huns), who had occupied the northern steppes and present Shansi province for some time, took advantage of the confusion and declared their independence. Other barbarians followed their example and within the next century more than a dozen semi-Chinese, semi-barbarian states emerged in north China. The House of Tsin crossed the Yangtze and established a new capital at Nanking. Henceforth this rule was known as the "Eastern Tsin Dynasty" (317-420).

An historical battle was fought between the southern Chinese and northern barbarians at the Fei River in northern Anhwei in A.D. 383. The barbarians were defeated and the battle laid the foundation for two centuries of stalemate between the north and south dynasties, during which more contacts between the Chinese and barbarians took place. The mixture of Chinese and barbarous elements yielded a new Chinese race. Classical China had come to an end and a Greater China, a China with Tartar blood and a Buddhistic philosophy, had come into being. The barbarians were not totally alien from the Chinese. They were groups from the stock of the same proto-Chinese which evolved differently in their varying environments, resulting in different degrees of "civilization." The extension of the Chinese "horizon," especially after the Han dynasty, meant only the "reunion" of the Chinese stock.

The six centuries (A.D. 383-960) after the Battle of the Fei River saw the rise and fall of the North and South dynasties, the Sui and Tang dynasties, and the Five Dynasties. The House of Li, the ruling family of the Tang dynasty, rose from what is now Shansi to dominate an area larger than modern China, including the entire Amur territory, Korea, Turkestan and the Indo-China peninsula. The Tang emperor had the additional title of Heavenly Khan over the far-flung territories of the Chinese Empire.

BUDDHISM FLOURISHED

Buddhism reached the height of its development during the North and South dynasties and in Sui and Tang times. There were many Buddhist missionaries from India and central Asia and Chinese pilgrimages to the west. Buddhist sutras were translated and Chinese treatises developed. Many sects flourished at this time, which somewhat determined the form of Buddhism in China. The religion, with additions from Chinese tradition, formed the chief spiritual refuge for the people.

The grandeur of the Sui and Tang dynasties lasted barely two centuries. The empire declined from the middle of the eighth century and disintegrated at the beginning of the tenth, when it was succeeded by the so-called Five Dynasties. At the same time Buddhism declined and the traditional Chinese culture in the form of Confucianism began to reassert itself under the championship of Han Yu (A.D. 768-824), who advocated eliminating all foreign influences and restoring the pure Chinese culture of Confucian days.

China of the Sung dynasty (A.D. 960-1279) was much smaller than that of Tang. It had no natural boundary because militarily it was not strong enough to reclaim the territories occupied by the Khitans in the north and the Tibetans of Hsia in the west. Struggles between Confucianism and non-Confucianism, and struggles among Confucianists between realism (led by Chu Hsi, 1130-1200) and idealism (led by Lu Chiu-yuan, 1139-1192) occupied the full attention of scholars and statesmen, with the result that the none-too-strong Sung dynasty became even weaker. Gradually the Khitans overran all north China and, for a century and a half after A.D. 1127, the Sung held to the south and was known as the "Southern Sung Dynasty." Eventually the Mongols defeated the Khitans in the north and later overran all of China in A.D. 1279. For the first time all China was overwhelmed by a barbarous people and instead of being *The Empire*, she became only part of the Mongol empire, although the emperor held court within Chinese territory.

The Yuan dynasty under the Mongols was a period of political catastrophe and cultural stagnation. The Yuan rulers were indifferent to Chinese culture. They not only had no desire to be absorbed, but preferred to see the Chinese adopt Mongol manners and thought. This was the main reason why the Mongols were overthrown after barely 89 years in China.

China of the Ming dynasty, which followed the Yuan, recovered a number of strategical frontiers which had been lost by the Sung. Institutionally and culturally, however, the Ming period accomplished little. The "eight-legged essay" examination system further bound the thought of Chinese scholars and limited their outlook, resulting in a dearth of outstanding statesmen in the history of the dynasty. The only bright page of the Ming history was the colonization of the southwestern provinces of Yunnan, Kwangsi and Kweichow, and the expansion of Chinese to the South Seas. Sea-borne trade between China and the

South Seas began as early as Tang, perhaps earlier, and throughout Sung and Yuan the Chinese of the south never lost contact with the southern islands. After a naval expedition by the Ming eunuch Cheng Ho, beginning in A.D. 1406, the coastal Chinese began to migrate in large numbers to join their pioneer kinsmen already settled abroad. This marked a new departure in Chinese development. Although a continental people, many Chinese after the 15th century became trained seafarers.

The end of Ming saw the Manchus, another barbarian group, occupying China and establishing their own empire. The Manchu (Ching) empire was different from the Mongol empire in that the Manchus readily took to Chinese culture and were soon absorbed by the Chinese. They also persuaded all the racial groups within the nation to adopt Chinese ways of living and a number of outlying districts were put directly under the Imperial Government control.

China in the middle of the 19th century began to feel an increasing impact from abroad, which created a series of new problems. One of the results was the Opium War of 1839-42. The resultant Treaty of Nanking provided for an indemnity; the opening of five ports: Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai; the granting of extraterritoriality; the cession of Hongkong and "equitable" tariff. Two years later, in 1844, the United States and France followed British footsteps by securing similar treaties with China. Before long all the western powers were granted identical privileges.

THE TAIPING REBELLION

A fracas over a small vessel off Canton brought about a joint Anglo-French military expedition against China which involved the entire coast from Canton to Tientsin and resulted in the occupation of Peking by foreign forces in 1860. The war produced a series of treaties which opened more ports including Tientsin, Hankow, Kiukiang, and Chinkiang; elaborated the system of consular jurisdiction initiated by the Treaty of Nanking; and was responsible for a new tariff. Also, the British were leased a strip of Kowloon, opposite Hongkong. Meanwhile Russia obtained the Amur region and the sea coast east of the Ussuri River including the site of Vladivostok.

The weakness of the Manchu government encouraged internal unrest. The most serious of the domestic strife was the Taiping Rebellion which, starting from Kwangsi in 1850, within three years overran most of the southern provinces. The Taiping Rebels established their capital in Nanking and one of their expeditionary forces penetrated as far north as the vicinity of Tientsin. The movement borrowed a number of ideas and slogans from Christianity, which gave the struggle a semblance of antagonism between Chinese and western cultures. Tseng Kuo-fan, a scholar of the Confucian school and later made marquis by the Manchu emperor, led his Hunan volunteers in upholding Confucianism against "foreign ideology." He was assisted by Li Hung-chang and his Anhwei volunteers. The Imperial Forces under Tseng's command reoccupied Nanking in 1864 and the Manchus were given a new lease on life for another 50 years. The French took Indo-China in 1882-85 and Great Britain occupied Burma in 1886.

Politically still feudal and culturally a part of the Chinese complex, Japan had within one generation transformed itself into an efficient political machine after the European pattern and joined with alacrity in the international scramble for special privileges in China. Her piratical activities, which in the middle of the Ming dynasty had ravaged many a coastal city in Kiangsu and Chekiang, assumed wide and intensive proportions when the Meiji Restoration gave the country modern military strength. She invaded Formosa in 1874, annexed the Liuchiu Islands in 1879, and declared open war on China in 1894 to oust her from Korea and Manchuria. The first Sino-Japanese War resulted in a Japanese victory and the peace treaty concluded at Shimonoseki in 1895 provided for the independence of Korea; the cession to Japan of the Liaotung peninsula, Formosa, and the Pescadores Islands; the payment by China of two hundred million taels as indemnity to Japan, and the opening of Shasi, Chungking, Soochow, and Hangchow as treaty ports. Due to intervention of France, Russia, and Germany, Japan disgorged the Liaotung peninsula, but she formally annexed Korea in 1910.

China's defeat in the war of 1894-95 with Japan whetted the appetite of other powers for "concession grabbing." In an agreement signed with China in 1898, Russia acquired a 25-year lease of Port Arthur as a naval base, the Liaotung peninsula and rights in the Chinese Eastern railroad. In the same year Germany gained the lease of Kiaochow peninsula around Tsingtao and the Shantung province railroad building and mine operating concessions. France obtained the

lease of Kwangchowwan in Kwangtung province. Britain acquired Weihaiwei as a naval base. Meanwhile the western powers began to develop spheres of influence in China. During this period the United States was busily occupied in the development of her own territory. In 1899 John Hay declared the "Open Door" policy, to stop the scramble for territories and spheres of influence in China by other powers, and upheld Chinese sovereignty and territorial integrity.

THE BOXER UPRISING

In 1898 a reform was undertaken by the Manchu Emperor Kuang-hsu who, backed by men like Chang Chi-tung, Kang Yu-wei and Liang Chi-chao, issued 27 reform edicts in 100 days. But the force of reaction was too great for the emperor to overcome. In an attempt to imprison the Empress Dowager, the emperor was betrayed by Yuan Shih-kai, which led to virtual imprisonment for the emperor himself. The reactionary administration, headed by the Empress Dowager, tried to blame China's troubles on foreign powers. Her appeal to the people for help was echoed by fanatic desperadoes and members of secret societies. This led to the Boxer Uprising in 1900 in north China. The movement brought China another humiliating defeat. Under the protocol imposed after the uprising China had to pay a heavy indemnity, agreed to the establishment of a Legation Quarter in Peking guarded by foreign troops, and to the presence of foreign garrisons between Peking and the sea.

This debacle sealed the fate of the Manchu dynasty. The Empress Dowager and her government realized their waning power and the necessity of heeding the people's demands. Japan, watching Russia's growing Manchurian interests, in 1904 went to war with Russia in Manchuria. This war, in which a European power was beaten by an Asiatic nation, had a tremendous effect upon China. She began to awaken. Even the Empress Dowager had to bow before the Reform Movement and in 1905 and 1906 issued decrees for constitutional preparation. But it was too late. The corrupt imperial system proved fragile in the face of the powerful force of revolutionary ideas developed and disseminated by the modern educated youth of the land. After a series of abortive revolts in various parts of the country, the revolutionists, inspired by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, started the Wuchang Uprising on October 10, 1911. From 17 provinces and Shanghai and Nanking came echoes of revolution. Dr. Sun, who hurried back to China from the United States, was elected provisional president of the Republic of China and assumed office in Nanking on January 1, 1912. On February 12 the Manchu Emperor abdicated.

Dr. Sun, founder of the Kuomintang, was born in 1866 in Hsing-shan (now Chungshan) district of Kwangtung. He received his education in the Iolani school in Honolulu, Hawaii, and at Queen's College, Hongkong. Trained to be a physician, Dr. Sun nevertheless decided to dedicate himself to the task of establishing a republic after China's defeat in 1885 in her war with France. (For more of Dr. Sun's revolutionary work, *see* chapter on "Political Parties.")

After the abdication of the Manchu Emperor, Yuan Shih-kai was in charge of the government in Peking, bargaining with the government in Nanking for a constitutional monarchy. A compromise was reached whereby Yuan agreed to accept the Nanking constitution and the Kuomintang agreed to accept him as provisional president. On February 23, 1912, Dr. Sun resigned from the presidency in favor of Yuan. A provisional constitution of 56 articles was promulgated on March 11, 1912.

Yuan did not live up to the democratic provisions of the constitution. The parliament, composed mostly of Kuomintang members, was naturally hostile to Yuan and his idea of constitutional monarchy. To counteract its influence, Yuan subsidized the Republican Party, the Democratic Party and the United Party to form a Progressive Party. Following the assassination of Sung Chiao-jen in Shanghai on March 20, 1913, by Yuan's agents, Dr. Sun attempted a punitive expedition against Yuan from Kwangtung. This, however, failed. Meanwhile Yuan abused his powers, defying resolutions passed by parliament. Dr. Sun ordered that a widespread anti-Yuan movement be launched in Shanghai, Nanking, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Hunan, Anhwei, and Szechwan, but it failed, too. The Kuomintang was outlawed by Yuan and many of its members had to flee the country.

But Yuan was now faced with many difficulties. The Great War was in progress and Japan, one of the Allies, seized the German leased territory at Kiaochow peninsula in Shantung province. Yuan protested this seizure of China's territory. On May 7, 1915, the Japanese militarists served the infamous "Twenty-one Demands" upon China, designed to make her virtually a Japanese vassal. Under the threat of force, Yuan signed the first four

groups of the demands on May 9, leaving the fifth group as a subject for future negotiations. Then he made the fatal mistake of declaring himself monarch. The little support that propped his presidency fell apart. Meanwhile Dr. Sun directed widespread uprisings from ten different places in China. These uprisings did not cease until Yuan Shih-kai died in 1916 and Li Yuan-hung became president.

Li favored the restoration of the provisional constitution and the reassembly of the parliament dissolved by Yuan early in 1915. But he could manage neither the parliament nor the warlords in control of the provinces. The parliament produced a draft constitution but as this was unacceptable to the northern warlords they compelled the president in the summer of 1917 to dissolve parliament. Li soon resigned.

In the midst of such commotion another attempt was made by Chang Hsun and his followers to restore the Manchu regime. The little emperor, who came to the throne as a result of the coup d'etat in the summer of 1917, sat there for just 12 days. The failure of Chang Hsun created for Prime Minister Tuan Chi-jui a rare chance to gain dominance. Tuan coerced the parliament to approve China's participation in World War I. Despite his approval of China joining the Allies, Dr. Sun saw in Tuan an unscrupulous ruler with no regard for the constitution. Dr. Sun took part of the Chinese Navy to Canton and, in September, 1917, established a military government there.

The northern warlords kept up a fictional government at Peking, playing into the hands of Japan by accepting loans from her and pledging, as security, customs revenue and other taxes. They pulled the strings that worked the puppet president and parliament. In the south, Dr. Sun was elected president of the Canton provisional government in 1921 but was forced to retire by Chen Chiung-ming in 1922. In 1924 Dr. Sun again reorganized the Kuomintang, established the National Kwangtung University and the Whampao Military Academy. This conformed with the policy of teaching the party principles to the masses, the students, and the armed forces in preparation for the subsequent Northern Expedition.

At the beginning of 1925 there was a change in the Peking Government, which once again aroused Dr. Sun's hope for an early unification of the country by peaceful means. Although ill, he went to north China for the two-fold purpose of recovering his health and promoting a national convention with the northern leaders. But his health declined rapidly and he died in Peking on March 12, 1925.

THE NORTHERN EXPEDITION

After Dr. Sun's death the responsibility of carrying on the revolution and unifying the country fell on Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. On July 9, 1926, he led the Nationalist forces, officered by cadets of the Whampao Military Academy, from Canton on the long-planned Northern Expedition. The Nationalist forces at that time consisted not only of the true Kuomintang members but also communists who had joined the revolution promising that they would support the principles of the Kuomintang. The Russian agent Michael Borodin was active in Canton at that time.

While the troops under Generalissimo Chiang were marching northward, the communists created widespread social unrest in the rear. A split occurred in the Kuomintang. The radical wing assumed control of the party and in February, 1927, set up their headquarters at Hankow. Meanwhile, under the Generalissimo's leadership, the National Government was established in Nanking. The position of the leftists in the Wuhan regime soon became untenable when documents proving Moscow's conspiracy in China were made public. In July the Kuomintang decided to purge itself of the communists and to send Borodin and other Russian advisers back to Russia. In September the Wuhan and Nanking governments were merged. (For other details on communist activities in this period, *see* chapters on "Political Parties" and "The Communist Issue.")

Despite the expulsion of the Russians and the communists, the Kuomintang party was still not united. The strife for leadership went on until Generalissimo Chiang consolidated his position in both the government and the armed forces. By the spring of 1928 he was ready to push north again.

In the north, Chang Tso-lin remained in control of Peking and Manchuria. In the northwest the loyalty of Fen Yu-hsiang, although nominally a nationalist, was uncertain, while Yen Hsi-shan still kept his province of Shansi neutral and independent. These three, disunited, proved weak against Chiang's oncoming armies. In the end Yen and Feng decided to cast their lot with Generalissimo Chiang in his drive to dislodge Chang Tso-lin from Peking. As a result Chang abandoned Peking in June and entrained for Manchuria, but he was killed in a bomb explosion near Mukden. The National Government was formally established in Nanking in October, 1928 with Chiang as President. On December 29, Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, son and successor of Chang Tso-ling, declared his allegiance to the National Government. The nation began to undergo a period of Kuomintang tutelage in preparation for constitutional democracy.

During these turbulent years of revolution and counter-revolution a great cultural and social change took place in China. The cultural movement, which began in the universities in Peking in 1919, spread throughout China. The impact of western ideas was increasingly felt by the nation's youth. The new movement advocated the use of the vernacular instead of the literary style of writing, a scientific re-examination of China's cultural growth in all its aspects, systematic introduction of western philosophy, literature and culture, and an attempt to synthesize things Chinese and western.

In the years shortly after the establishment of the National Government, China regained part of her sovereign rights lost to foreign powers as a result of the unequal treaties. The only nation which not only clung to her gains but also tried to grab more was Japan. Besides her efforts to back up Yuan Shih-kai's monarchical attempt and the presentation of the Twenty-one Demands, Japan occupied Tsingtao and the railway to Tsinan during the First World War. This was in addition to the strip of territory along the South Manchuria railway which she had seized during the Russo-Japanese War in 1904-05. Japan did not return her seizures in Shantung to China until after the Washington Conference of 1921-22. Japan's ambitions were exposed in the notorious Tanaka Memorial published in 1927. In 1928, as the nationalist forces were pushing their way northward, the Japanese sent troops to Tsinan in Shantung in an attempt to stop them.

Now that the nation was unified under one flag, the National Government gave its attention to the long deferred tasks of reconstruction. Unfortunately, it had to cope with new revolts. In April, 1930, Feng Yu-hsiang and Yen Hsi-shan conspired with Wang Ching-wei against the National Government. Actual fighting broke out in May and continued for five months. Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang intervened on the side of the government. When his troops entered Tientsin and Peiping, the revolt collapsed. Again Generalissimo Chiang was in control of the country.

INVASION OF MANCHURIA

The unification of China under the National Government and the rapid progress made under the Kuomintang regime prompted Japan to take direct aggressive measures. The "Mukden Incident" on the night of September 18, 1931, marked the first step in Japan's armed aggression, when she occupied the three Chinese northeastern provinces by force. The Shanghai War in early 1932 strengthened Japan's position in Shanghai. The "Battle of the Great Wall" in early 1933 gave Japan control over the eastern section of the Great Wall, added Jehol to the puppet regime in the northeast, perpetrated an invasion of northern Chahar, and carved out a demilitarized zone in eastern Hopei under Japanese domination. By a show of force Japan compelled the Chinese National Army and Kuomintang headquarters to evacuate Peiping, Tientsin, Hopei, and Chahar, while she established another puppet regime in the eastern Hopei demilitarized zone. After 1935 Japan resorted to large-scale smuggling and drug trafficking to undermine Chinese economy and morale. A number of "economic cooperation projects" was demanded in north China, aimed at alienating that part of China from the rest. A futile attempt to invade Suiyuan was made in the winter of 1936 by puppet Mongol and Japanese units.

In December, 1936 Generalissimo Chiang was kidnapped by Chang Hsueh-liang's troops. There was nation-wide celebration when he was released on Christmas Eve. Known as "The Sian Coup," this was regarded as evidence of growing Chinese national solidarity. Japan realized then that it was impossible to deal with separate parts of China. Any blow, to be effective at all, would have to be delivered to the nation as a whole. The first half of 1937 saw Japan preparing for a full-dress invasion. The "incident" of the Lukouchiao (Marco Polo Bridge near Peiping) on the night of July 7, 1937, was the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War.

The incident, by which Japan tried to alienate the northern provinces of China, was plotted by the Japanese to be a "local issue." But the Chinese felt they had reached the limit of endurance. When on July 17 Generalissimo Chiang laid down the minimum conditions for negotiation, stressing the maintenance of China's

territorial integrity and sovereign rights, the entire nation rallied to his support.

Determined to pursue their aggressive ambitions on the continent, the Japanese launched their attack on the Peiping-Tientsin area by the end of July. Peiping fell on July 29 and Tientsin on the 31st.

In Shanghai, on the night of August 9, 1937, two Japanese marines were shot while trying to force their way into the Chinese Hungjao Military Airfield. This incident launched the war on a national scale. The Battle of Shanghai began on August 13. On November 20 the National Government announced the removal of its seat from Nanking to Chungking to continue the war of resistance. On December 13, Nanking fell. The Chinese military headquarters, however, was removed to Wuchang and Hankow from where it continued to direct operations until October, 1938, when it was moved to Chungking.

THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE

At the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War, China, as a member nation, repeatedly appealed to the League of Nations for sanctions against Japan. But China received nothing beyond moral support. Meanwhile an invitation was extended by the Belgian Government, at the request of Great Britain and the United States, to signatories and adherents to the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 for a conference at Brussels according to Article VII of that treaty. All except Japan accepted the invitation. The conference in Brussels began on November 3, 1937. After much deliberation the conference adopted a resolution on November 24, 1937, stating that it was convinced that force itself could provide no just and lasting solution for disputes between nations and that a satisfactory settlement could only be achieved by consultation with the powers concerned.

The Japanese war of aggression was not only directed against China but also at other powers in the Far East. Japan repeatedly attacked interests of the third powers in the course of the war and her aggressive intentions were further revealed when her military forces entered Indo-China on September 22, 1940, following the collapse of France. She had been preparing for war against both the United States and Great Britain. Her attacks on Pearl Harbor and other American and British possessions in the Pacific were made on December 8, 1941 (China Time). The next day China declared war on Japan as well as on Germany and Italy. The Sino-Japanese War became one phase of the world-wide conflict between democracy and aggression.

On January 1, 1942, twenty-six allied nations, including China, issued a joint declaration from Washington pledging to use their full resources against the Axis and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemy. Together with the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R., China thus became one of the four leading powers in the world fight against aggression. As a tribute to a major ally, the United States and Great Britain announced on October 10, 1942, their readiness to relinquish their extraterritorial rights in China. New Sino-American and Sino-British treaties were concluded on January 11, 1943. China's equal status among the major powers was fully established.

China, the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R. concluded on October 30, 1943, the four-power talk in Moscow. In the joint declaration, they reaffirmed their decision to use their full resources against their respective enemies and to seek joint action in fighting as well as in disarming the enemies. They suggested the establishment of an international organization for the maintenance of peace and order after the war. At the Cairo Conference in November, 1943, President Chiang met President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill to discuss the war against Japan. The joint declaration they issued after the meeting emphasized unconditional surrender of Japan, restoration to China of all the territories stolen from her by Japan, and the independence of Korea.

At home, China tightened her belt in order to sustain the Allied war efforts in the China theater. A number of measures were adopted at the end of 1944 looking toward a major counter-offensive in cooperation with the Allied forces. In January, 1945, the Stilwell Road was opened.

The eight-year war was brought to an end when Japan unconditionally surrendered on August 14, 1945. But with victory came new problems. On the same day China signed a 30-year Treaty of Friendship and Alliance with the Soviet Union, providing joint ownership and operation of the Chinese Changchun railway by the two countries, the joint use of Port Arthur as a naval base, and the opening of Dairen as a free port. In addition, as provided in the treaty, China promised to grant independence to Outer Mongolia if its people should so indicate their wishes in a plebiscite.

The most serious problem confronting postwar China was that of Chinese Communists whose strength was poised in north China and later spread into the northeast. After repeated appeals by Generalissimo Chiang, they finally agreed on January 10, 1946 to participate in the Political Consultative Conference. General George C. Marshall, special U. S. envoy, acted as mediator.

The 21-day conference brought the government and the communists together in serious negotiation. But the Chinese Reds, intransigent in their attitude, failed to carry out agreements reached in the conference and in April, 1946, upon the evacuation of the Soviet army from the northeast, rapidly occupied different key cities. While military clashes between the government and the communists developed in various regions, peaceful efforts were renewed but these came to a deadlock when the communists boycotted the constituent National Assembly which began its sessions in November and adopted a democratic constitution on Christmas Day.

COMMUNIST REBELLION

The communist rebellion seriously upset China's plans for postwar reconstruction. Simultaneously, the government had to suppress the communists, rehabilitate war-devastated areas, fight inflation and implement the constitution. On April 1, 1947, the Kuomintang, the Democratic Socialist party, and the Young China party signed a joint administrative program in Nanking, marking the beginning of a multi-party cooperation. The one-party rule by the Kuomintang came to an end on April 17, 1947. A reorganized state council took over until the formation of a new government early in 1948. The communists were outlawed and the nation was mobilized. (For further details, *see* chapters on "The Communist Issue" and "Political Parties.")

On November 21, 1947, the first general election in Chinese history began. As a result the First National Assembly opened on March 29, 1948; in a month-long session it elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek President under the new constitution and General Li Tsung-jen Vice-President. The Generalissimo was sworn in as China's first elected President on May 20.

For the first time in her history China saw the realization of constitutional democracy. Her aspirations for the future of the world are explicitly expressed in Article 141 of her constitution, which lays stress on the respect of the United Nations Charter as the prerequisite to the promotion of international cooperation, advancement of international justice and maintenance of world peace.

TABLE 1—TABLE OF DYNASTIES

LEGENDARY

Dynastic Title	*Accession*
Huang Ti (The Yellow Emperor)	2697 B.C.
Shao Hao	2597 B.C.
Chuan Hsu	2513 B.C.
Ti Ku	2435 B.C.
Ti Chih	2365 B.C.
Yao (Tang Yao)	2357 B.C.
Shun (Yu Shun)	2255 B.C.

HISTORICAL

The Hsia Dynasty—2205-1766 B.C.	
Family name: Shih	
Yu, the Great	2205 B.C.
Chi	2197 B.C.
Tai Kang	2188 B.C.
Chung Kang	2159 B.C.
Hsiang	2146 B.C.
Shao Kang	2118 B.C.
Chu	2057 B.C.
Huai	2040 B.C.
Mang	2014 B.C.
Hsieh	1996 B.C.
Pu Chiang	1980 B.C.
Chiung	1921 B.C.
Chin	1900 B.C.
Kung Chia	1879 B.C.
Kao	1848 B.C.
Fa	1837 B.C.
Chieh	1818 B.C.
The Shang or Yin Dynasty—1766-1122 B.C.	
Family name: Tzu	
Capitals: Po, Nao, Yin	
Tang	1766 B.C.
Tai Chia	1753 B.C.
Wu Ting	1720 B.C.
Ta Keng	1691 B.C.
Hsiao Chia	1666 B.C.
Yung Chi	1649 B.C.
Tai Wu	1637 B.C.
Chung Ting	1562 B.C.
Wai Jen	1549 B.C.
Ho Tan Chia	1534 B.C.
Tsu I	1525 B.C.
Tsu Hsin	1506 B.C.
Wu Chia	1490 B.C.
Tsu Ting	1465 B.C.
Nan Keng	1433 B.C.
Yang Chia	1408 B.C.
Pan Keng	1401 B.C.
Hsiao Hsin	1373 B.C.
Hsiao I	1352 B.C.
Wu Ting	1324 B.C.
Tsu Keng	1265 B.C.
Tsu Chia	1258 B.C.

Dynastic Title	*Accession*
Lin Hsin	1225 B.C.
Keng Ting	1219 B.C.
Wu I	1198 B.C.
Tai Ting	1194 B.C.
Ti I	1191 B.C.
Shou (Chou Hsin)	1154 B.C.
The Chou Dynasty—1122-255 B.C.	
Family name: Chi	
Capitals: Feng (1122-771) Loyang (770-255)	
Wu Wang	1122 B.C.
Cheng Wang	1115 B.C.
Kang Wang	1078 B.C.
Chao Wang	1052 B.C.
Mu Wang	1001 B.C.
Kung Wang	946 B.C.
I Wang	934 B.C.
Hsiao Wang	909 B.C.
Yi Wang	894 B.C.
Li Wang	878 B.C.
Hsuan Wang	827 B.C.
Yu Wang	781 B.C.
Ping Wang	770 B.C.
Huan Wang	719 B.C.
Chuang Wang	696 B.C.
Hsi Wang	681 B.C.
Hui Wang	676 B.C.
Hsiang Wang	651 B.C.
Ching Wang	618 B.C.
Kuang Wang	612 B.C.
Ting Wang	606 B.C.
Chien Wang	585 B.C.
Ling Wang	571 B.C.
Ching Wang	544 B.C.
Ching Wang	519 B.C.
Yuan Wang	475 B.C.
Chen Ting Wang	468 B.C.
Kao Wang	440 B.C.
Wei Lieh Wang	425 B.C.
An Wang	401 B.C.
Lieh Wang	375 B.C.
Hsien Wang	368 B.C.
Shen Ching Wang	320 B.C.
Nan Wang	314 B.C.
Tung Chou Chun (Duke of Eastern Chou)	255 B.C.
The Chin Dynasty—255-206 B.C.	
Family name: Ying	
Capital: Hsienyang	
Chao Hsiang Wang	255 B.C.
Hsiao Wen Wang	250 B.C.
Chuang Hsiang Wang	250 B.C.
Shih Huang Ti	246 B.C.
Erh Shih Huang Ti	209 B.C.
Tze Ying	207 B.C.
The Han Dynasty—208 B.C.-A.D. 220	
Family name: Liu	
Capitals: Changan (208 B.C.-A.D. 25) Loyang (A.D. 25-220)	
Kao Ti (Liu Pang)	206 B.C.
Hui Ti	194 B.C.
Kao Hou (Empress Lu, of Kao Ti)	187 B.C.

Dynastic Title	*Accession*
Wen Ti	179 B.C.
Ching Ti	156 B.C.
Wu Ti	140 B.C.
Chao Ti	86 B.C.
Hsuan Ti	73 B.C.
Yuan Ti	48 B.C.
Cheng Ti	32 B.C.
Ai Ti	6 B.C.
Ping Ti	A.D. 1
Ju Tze Ying	A.D. 6
(Hsin Mang)	A.D. 9
(Huai Yang Wang)	A.D. 23
Kuang Wu Ti	A.D. 25
Ming Ti	A.D. 58
Chang Ti	A.D. 76
Ho Ti	A.D. 89
Shang Ti	A.D. 106
An Ti	A.D. 107
Shun Ti	A.D. 126
Chung Ti	A.D. 145
Chih Ti	A.D. 146
Huan Ti	A.D. 147
Ling Ti	A.D. 168
Shao Ti	A.D. 189
Hsien Ti	A.D. 189
The Three Kingdoms—Wei—A.D. 220-265	
Family name: Tsao	
Capital: Loyang	
Wei Wen Ti	A.D. 220
Wei Ming Ti	A.D. 227
Wei Fei Ti	A.D. 240
Wei Shao Ti	A.D. 254
Wei Yuan Ti	A.D. 260
Shu Han—A.D. 221-264	
Family name: Liu	
Capital: Chengtu	
Shu-Han Chao Lieh Ti	A.D. 221
Shu-Han Ssu Ti (Hou Chu)	A.D. 223
Wu—A.D. 222-280	
Family name: Sun	
Capital: Nanking	
Wu Ta Ti	A.D. 222
Wu Fei Ti	A.D. 252
Wu Ching Ti	A.D. 258
Wu Mo Ti	A.D. 264
The Tsin Dynasty—A.D. 265-420	
Family name: Ssu-ma	
Capitals: Changan and Loyang (A.D. 265-316) Nanking (A.D. 317-420)	
Wu Ti	A.D. 265
Hui Ti	A.D. 290
Huai Ti	A.D. 307
Min Ti	A.D. 313
Yuan Ti (East Tsin)	A.D. 317
Ming Ti	A.D. 323
Cheng Ti	A.D. 326
Kang Ti	A.D. 343
Mu Ti	A.D. 345
Ai Ti	A.D. 362
Ti I (Hai Hsi Kung)	A.D. 366
Chien Wen Ti	A.D. 371

Dynastic Title	*Accession*
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 373
An Ti	A.D. 397
Kung Ti	A.D. 419
The Southern Dynasties: Sung—A.D. 420-479	
Family name: Liu	
Capital: Nanking	
Wu Ti	A.D. 420
Shao Ti	A.D. 423
Wen Ti	A.D. 424
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 454
Fei Ti	A.D. 465
Ming Ti	A.D. 465
Fei Ti (Tsang Yu Wang)	A.D. 473
Shun Ti	A.D. 477
Chi—A.D. 479-502	
Family name: Hsiao	
Capital: Nanking	
Kao Ti	A.D. 479
Wu Ti	A.D. 482
Yu Ling Wang	A.D. 493
Hai Ling Wang	A.D. 494
Ming Ti	A.D. 494
Tung Han Hou	A.D. 498
Ho Ti	A.D. 501
Liang—A.D. 502-557	
Family name: Hsiao	
Capital: Nanking	
Wu Ti	A.D. 502
Chien Wen Ti	A.D. 549
Yu Chang Wang	A.D. 551
Yuan Ti	A.D. 552
Cheng Yang Hou	A.D. 555
Ching Ti	A.D. 555
Chen—A.D. 557-589	
Family name: Chen	
Capital: Nanking	
Wu Ti	A.D. 557
Wen Ti	A.D. 560
Lin Hai Wang	A.D. 567
Hsuan Ti	A.D. 569
Hou Chu	A.D. 583
Northern Dynasties: Northern Wei—A.D. 386-535	
Family name: Toba and "Yuan"	
Capitals: Tatung (A.D. 386-493) Loyang (A.D. 493-535)	
Tao Wu Ti	A.D. 386
Ming Yuan Ti	A.D. 409
Tai Wu Ti	A.D. 424
Wen Cheng Ti	A.D. 452
Hsien Wen Ti	A.D. 466
Hsiao Wen Ti	A.D. 471
Hsuan Wu Ti	A.D. 500
Hsiao Ming Ti	A.D. 516
Lin Tao Wang	A.D. 528
Hsiao Chuang Ti	A.D. 528
Tung Hai Wang	A.D. 530
Chieh Min Ti	A.D. 531
An Ting Wang	A.D. 531
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 532
Eastern Wei—A.D. 534-550	
Family name: Toba	

Dynastic Title	*Accession*
Capital: Kaifeng	
Hsiao Ching Ti	A.D. 534
Western Wei—A.D. 535-557	
Family name: Toba	
Capital: Changan	
Wen Ti	A.D. 535
Fei Ti	A.D. 552
Kung Ti	A.D. 554
Northern Chi—A.D. 550-577	
Family name: Kao	
Capital: Yeh	
Wen Hsuan Ti	A.D. 550
Fei Ti	A.D. 560
Hsiao Chao Ti	A.D. 560
Wu Cheng Ti	A.D. 561
Hou Chu	A.D. 565
An Teh Wang	A.D. 577
Northern Chou—A.D. 556-581	
Family name: Yu-wen	
Capital: Changan	
Hsiao Min Ti	A.D. 556
Ming Ti	A.D. 557
Hsuan Ti	A.D. 578
Ching Ti	A.D. 580
The Sui Dynasty—A.D. 581-618	
Family name: Yang	
Capitals: Changan and Loyang	
Wen Ti	A.D. 581
Yang Ti	A.D. 605
Kung Ti Yu	A.D. 617
Kung Ti Tung	A.D. 618
The Tang Dynasty—A.D. 618-907	
Family name: Li	
Capital: Changan	
Kao Tsu	A.D. 618
Tai Tsung (the Great)	A.D. 627
Kao Tsung	A.D. 650
Chung Tsung	A.D. 684
Jui Tsung	A.D. 684
Wu Hou (Empress)	A.D. 684
Chung Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 705
Jui Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 710
Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 713
Su Tsung	A.D. 756
Tai Tsung	A.D. 763
Teh Tsung	A.D. 780
Shun Tsung	A.D. 805
Hsien Tsung	A.D. 806
Mu Tsung	A.D. 821
Ching Tsung	A.D. 825
Wen Tsung	A.D. 827
Wu Tsung	A.D. 841
Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 847
I Tsung	A.D. 860
Hsi Tsung	A.D. 874
Chao Tsung	A.D. 889
Chao Huan Ti (Ai Ti)	A.D. 904
The Five Dynasties: Later Liang—A.D. 907-922	
Family name: Chu	
Capitals: Kaifeng and Loyang	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 907

Dynastic Title	Accession
Mo Ti	A.D. 913
Later Tang—A.D. 923-936	
Family name: Li	
Capitals: Weichow and Loyang	
Chuang Tsung	A.D. 923
Ming Tsung	A.D. 926
Min Ti	A.D. 933
Lu Wang	A.D. 934
Later Tsin—A.D. 936-946	
Family name: Shih	
Capitals: Loyang and Kaifeng	
Kao Tsu	A.D. 936
Chu Ti	A.D. 942
Later Han—A.D. 947-950	
Family name: Liu	
Capital: Kaifeng	
Kao Tsu	A.D. 947
Yin Ti	A.D. 948
Later Chou—A.D. 951-960	
Family name: Kuo	
Capital: Kaifeng	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 951
Shih Tsung	A.D. 954
Kung Ti	A.D. 959
The Sung Dynasty—A.D. 960-1279	
Family name: Chao	
Capitals: Kaifeng (A.D. 960-1126) Hangchow (A.D. 1127-1279)	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 960
Tai Tsung	A.D. 976
Chen Tsung	A.D. 997
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1022
Ying Tsung	A.D. 1063
Shen Tsung	A.D. 1067
Che Tsung	A.D. 1085
Hui Tsung	A.D. 1100
Chin Tsung	A.D. 1126
Kao Tsung (Southern Sung)	A.D. 1127
Hsiao Tsung	A.D. 1162
Kuang Tsung	A.D. 1189
Ning Tsung	A.D. 1194
Li Tsung	A.D. 1224
Tu Tsung	A.D. 1264
Kung Ti	A.D. 1274
Tuan Tsung	A.D. 1276
Ti Ping	A.D. 1279
Liao (Khitan) Dynasty—A.D. 907-1154	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 907
Tai Tsung	A.D. 926
Shih Tsung	A.D. 947
Mu Tsung	A.D. 951
Ching Tsung	A.D. 968
Sheng Tsung	A.D. 983
Hsing Tsung	A.D. 1031
Tao Tsung	A.D. 1055
Tien Tsu Ti	A.D. 1101
Teh Tsung	A.D. 1125
Kan Tien Hou	A.D. 1136
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1142
Chin (Golden) Dynasty—A.D. 1115-1234	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 1115
Tai Tsung	A.D. 1123

Dynastic Title	Accession
Hsi Tsung	A.D. 1135
Hai Ling Wang	A.D. 1149
Shih Tsung	A.D. 1161
Chang Tsung	A.D. 1190
Wei Shao Wang	A.D. 1209
Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 1213
Ai Tsung	A.D. 1224
Mo Ti	A.D. 1234
The Yuan (Mongol) Dynasty—A.D. 1206-1368	
Family name: Chi-O-Wen	
Capitals: Holin (Karakorum) Peking (Tatu)	
Tai Tsu (Genghis Khan)	A.D. 1206
Tai Tsung (Ogotai)	A.D. 1229
Ting Tsung (Kuyak)	A.D. 1246
Hsien Tsung (Mangu)	A.D. 1251
Shih Tsu (Kublai)	A.D. 1260
Cheng Tsung	A.D. 1294
Wu Tsung	A.D. 1307
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1311
Ying Tsung	A.D. 1320
Tai Ting Ti	A.D. 1323
Yu Chu	A.D. 1328
Ming Tsung	A.D. 1332
Shun Ti	A.D. 1333
The Ming Dynasty—A.D. 1368-1644	
Family name: Chu	
Capitals: Nanking (A.D. 1368-1402) Peking (A.D. 1403-1644)	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 1368
Hui Wen Ti	A.D. 1398
Cheng Tsu	A.D. 1402
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1424
Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 1425
Ying Tsung	A.D. 1435
Tai Tsung	A.D. 1449
Ying Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 1457
Hsien Tsung	A.D. 1464
Hsiao Tsung	A.D. 1487
Wu Tsung	A.D. 1505
Shih Tsung	A.D. 1521
Mu Tsung	A.D. 1566
Shen Tsung	A.D. 1572
Kuang Tsung	A.D. 1620
Hsi Tsung	A.D. 1620
Ssu Tsung	A.D. 1627
The Ching (Manchu) Dynasty—A.D. 1583-1911	
Family name: Gioro (Ai-Hsin-Chieh-Lo)	
Capital: Liaoyang (A.D. 1621-1643) Peking (A.D. 1644-1912)	
Tai Tsu (Nurchachu)	A.D. 1583
Tai Tsung (Huang Taichi)	A.D. 1627
Shih Tsu (Shun-chih)	A.D. 1644
Sheng Tsu (Kang-hsi)	A.D. 1662
Shih Tsung (Yung-Cheng)	A.D. 1723
Kao Tsung (Chien-Lung)	A.D. 1736
Jen Tsung (Chia-ching)	A.D. 1796
Hsuan Tsung (Tao-kuang)	A.D. 1821

Dynastic Title	Accession	Dynastic Title	Accession
Wen Tsung (Hsien-feng)	A.D. 1850	Teh Tsung (Kuang-hsu)	A.D. 1875
Mu Tsung (Tung-chih)	A.D. 1861	Pu Yi (Hsuan-tung)	A.D. 1908

Source: *A Short History of Chinese Civilization* by Tsui Chi.

Table 2—Presidents of the Republic of China

Peking Government

Sun Yat-sen (provisional)	January—February, 1912
Yuan Shih-kai (provisional)	February, 1912—June, 1913
Yuan Shih-kai	June, 1913—June, 1916
Li Yuan-hung	June, 1916—July, 1917
Feng Kuo-chang	July, 1917—October, 1918
Hsu Shih-chang	October, 1918—June, 1922
Li Yuan-hung	June, 1922—June, 1923
Tsao Kun	October, 1923—October, 1924
Tuan Chi-jui (provisional chief executive)	November, 1924—November, 1926

National Government

Chiang Kai-shek	October, 1928—December, 1931
Lin Sen	December, 1931—August, 1943
Chiang Kai-shek	October, 1943—May, 1948

Constitutional Government

Chiang Kai-shek	May, 1948—

(Vice-President Li Tsung-jen acted for President Chiang from January 21, 1949 to February 28, 1950)

Table 3—Presidents of the Executive Yuan (Premier)

1. National Government

Tan Yen-kai	November, 1928—September, 1930
T. V. Soong, acting	September, 1930—November, 1930
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	November, 1930—December, 1930
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1930—December, 1931
Chen Ming-shu, acting	December, 1931—January, 1932
Sun Fo	January, 1932—January, 1932
Wang Ching-wei	January, 1932—December, 1935
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1935—April, 1937
Wang Chung-hui, acting	April, 1937—January, 1938
Kung Hsiang-hsi	January, 1938—December, 1939
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1939—September, 1943
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	September, 1943—December, 1943
T. V. Soong	December, 1943—March, 1947
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	March, 1947—April, 1947
Chang Chun	April, 1947—May, 1948

2. Constitutional Government

Wong Wen-hao	May, 1948—November, 1948
Sun Fo	November, 1948—March, 1949
Ho Ying-chin	March, 1949—June, 1949
Yen Hsi-shan	June, 1949—

CHAPTER 5

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS
(1911-1949)

1911

Oct. 10.—Revolutionaries staged uprising at Wuchang; founding of the Chinese Republic.

1912

Jan. 1.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen became first Provisional President of the Republic of China.

Jan. 26.—Hsuan Tung, last emperor of Ching dynasty, abdicated.

Mar. 10.—Yuan Shih-kai became Provisional President of China, succeeding Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who had resigned.

Mar. 11.—A provisional constitution, containing 56 articles, promulgated.

1913

July 12.—Second Revolution under leadership of Kuomintang leader Huang Hsing opposing Yuan Shih-kai's dictatorial rule.

Sept. 1.—Second Revolution failed.

Oct. 10.—Yuan Shih-kai formally assumed Presidency.

1914

Aug. 6.—China declared neutrality in World War I.

Sept.—Japanese troops seized German concessions in Shantung, occupying Tsingtao-Tsinan railway.

1915

Jan. 18.—Japan presented 21 demands to Peking Government.

May 9.—Yuan Shih-kai accepted in part the 21 demands.

Dec. 23.—Yuan Shih-kai ascended the imperial throne.

Dec. 25.—Tsai Ngo and Tang Chi-yao started revolt against Yuan Shih-kai in Yunnan Province.

1916

June 5.—Yuan Shih-kai died. Republican form of government was restored. Li Yuan-hung became president.

1917

July 12.—Restoration movement of Manchu dynasty led by Chang Hsun failed. President Li Yuan-hung, who had sought refuge in the Legation Quarter during the coup, refused to resume office, and was succeeded by Feng Kuo-chang. Tuan Chi-jui and his Anfu clique came into power.

Aug. 14.—China declared war on Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Aug. 25.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen formed military government in Canton.

1918

June 5.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen and other Kuomintang leaders ousted from Canton by Kwangsi faction led by Chen Chun-hsuan.

July 12.—A new parliament, "Tuchuns' Parliament," met in Peking. Two months later, it elected Hsu Shih-chang president.

1919

May 4.—Students demonstrated in Peking, leading to dismissal of Tsao Ju-lin, Chang Tsung-hsiang and Lu Tsung-yu, officials responsible for Government's pro-Japanese policy.

July—China refused to ratify Versailles Treaty because of Shantung problem.

1920

July 12.—Chang Tso-lin and Tsao Kun joined forces and brought about downfall of Tuan Chi-jui and Anfu clique.

Sept. 29.—Peking Government broke diplomatic relations with Czarist Russia.

1921

May 5.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen assumed presidency of newly-formed government in Kwangtung.

Nov. 11.—The Washington Conference convened under U. S. auspices to effect armament limitation and settle outstanding Pacific and Far Eastern questions.

1922

Feb. 4.—The Shantung problem settled at the Washington Conference.

Feb. 6.—The Nine-Power Treaty concluded in Washington, with contracting powers agreeing to respect sovereignty, independence, and territorial and administrative integrity of China.

Apr. 28.—Civil war between Wu Pei-fu and Chang Tso-lin started. Following defeat of Chang by Wu's forces, President Hsu Shih-chang resigned. After delay, Li Yuan-hung, residing in Tientsin since his 1917 resignation, resumed Presidency.

June 16.—Chen Chun-ming revolted against Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Canton. Dr. Sun fled to Shanghai.

Dec. 26.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen issued manifesto urging unification of China through peaceful means.

1923

Feb. 15.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen returned to Canton following defeat of Chen Chun-ming.

Oct. 5.—Tsao Kun elected president of China. A new constitution promulgated on October 10.

1924

Jan. 20.—First National Congress of Kuomintang in Canton adopted policy of cooperation with Soviet Russia and Chinese Communist party.

May 31.—China established diplomatic relations with Soviet Union.

June 16.—Whampoa Military Academy founded with Chiang Kai-shek as principal.

Oct.—The second Fengtien-Chihli war, resulting in defeat of General Wu Pei-fu and resignation of Tsao Kun. Tuan Chi-jui became provisional chief executive.

Dec. 4—Dr. Sun Yat-sen arrived in Tientsin at invitation of Tuan Chi-jui.

1925

Mar. 12.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen died in Peking (now Peiping) at age of 59.

Oct. 26.—Special conference for revision of Chinese tariff in Peking, 13 powers participating, halted by China's internal disturbances.

Dec. 23.—Kuomintang right wing at Western Hills conference outside Peking moved to dismiss Borodin, Soviet political adviser, and Gen. Galen, Soviet military adviser to revolutionary government in Canton.

1926

Jan.—The Kuomintang's Second National Congress decided to retain Soviet advisors, censured right wing.

Apr.—Feng Yu-hsieng's Kuominchun defeated by joint forces of Chang Tso-lin and Wu Pei-fu. Tuan Chi-jui resigned as provisional chief executive.

June 6.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek became commander-in-chief of National Revolutionary Forces and launched Northern Expedition.

July-Nov.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces gained series of victories, taking Changsa in July, Hankow in October, Kiukiang and Nanchang in November.

1927

Jan. 4.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces took British concessions in Hankow and Kiukiang by force.

Feb.—Kuomintang left wing set up revolutionary government in Wuhan.

Mar. 21.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces occupied Shanghai and Nanking.

Apr. 18.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek set up National Government in Nanking.

June 1.—The Wuhan Government decided to dismiss Borodin and other Soviet advisers.

Aug. 1.—Chinese Communists staged uprising in Nanchang in revolt against National Government.

Sept. 6.—Merger of Wuhan and Nanking Governments completed. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek resigned in interest of party unity.

Dec. 15.—The National Government severed relations with Soviet Russia.

1928

Jan. 1.—The National Government ordered Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to resume post of commander-in-chief of National Revolutionary Forces, and to continue the Northern Expedition to unify the country.

May 1.—The National Revolutionary Forces occupied Tsinan. Chang Tso-lin ordered general retreat of his troops into the northeast.

June 4.—Chang Tso-lin killed when his train was blown up by Japanese agents near Mukden.

June 9.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces occupied Peking, renamed Peiping.

July 7.—The National Government announced plan to abrogate unequal treaties and agreements contracted by defunct regimes.

Nov. 1.—The Central Bank of China established.

Nov.-Dec.—The United States, Britain and France formally recognized the National Government as the *de jure* Government of the Republic of China. These powers also recognized China's tariff autonomy.

Dec. 29.—Chang Hsueh-liang of the northeast pledged his allegiance to the National Government, thus bringing about the unification of the entire country.

1929

Jan. 1.—Military Reorganization and Disbandment Conference opened in Nanking under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. A month later adopted important resolutions to reduce Chinese troops.

Mar. 15.—The Kuomintang's Third National Congress convened in Nanking.

May 24.—The Government decided to launch punitive campaign against Feng Yu-hsiang, who revolted in Honan. Feng defeated after defection of his principal subordinates.

June 6.—The state burial of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

June 12.—The Kuomintang decided to end period of political tutelage by 1935.

July 9.—Chang Hsueh-liang planned to recover Chinese Eastern railway from Soviet control. Failed owing to armed Soviet opposition.

Dec. 5.—Tang Sheng-chih revolted in Honan against National Government.

1930

Jan. 6.—Tang Sheng-chih retired and handed his command to subordinates. One week later remnants of Tang's troops were disarmed.

Apr. 1.—Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang revolted in north China.

Apr. 18.—Britain returned Weihaiwei to China.

June—Severe fighting took place between rebel troops and government forces along the Peiping-Hankow, Tientsin-Pukow, Lunghai railways.

July 13.—Rebels held an Enlarged Plenary Session of Kuomintang in Peiping to set up separate government under Wang Ching-wei.

Sept. 14.—Following his defeat in Shantung, Yen retired from public life in Shihchiachuang.

Sept. 18.—Chang Hsueh-liang intervened for government by sending troops to Peiping.

Oct. 10.—With the retirement of the northern coalition leaders, dissolution of the Enlarged Conference, triumphal return of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek from the war fronts to Nanking, and acceptance by Chang Hsueh-liang of government appointment, the protracted campaign ended in the reunification of the country.

Nov. 12.—The Kuomintang Fourth National Congress five-day conference closed November 18. Organic law of the National Government revised, the Central Government and National Army reorganized and the National People's Convention to be convoked on May 5, 1931.

1931

Jan. 1.—National Government announced abolition of *likin* dues and other duties hampering domestic trade.

Mar. 2.—Hu Han-min resigned presidency of the Legislative Yuan due to difference of opinion with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on the Provisional Constitution.

May 5.—The National People's Convention held in Nanking under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

May 12.—The Provisional Constitution adopted.

May 27.—A dissension movement started in Canton. Wang Ching-wei, Tang Shao-yi, Chen Chi-tang and other Kuomintang leaders met in an extraordinary session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee to plot overthrow of the National Government. The dissidents issued a circular telegram urging Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to retire.

June 1.—The Provisional Constitution was promulgated.

June 11.—Tibetan troops invaded Sikang.

June 21.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek left for Nanchang to assume personal command of the Communist-suppression campaign.

July 4.—Korean immigrants occupied Wanpaoshan in Kirin at instigation of Japanese militarists.

July-Sept.—Sixteen provinces in north and central China reported disastrous floods. Hankow, Wuchang and other central China cities inundated.

Sept. 13.—Canton forces invaded Hunan, driving toward Hengyang.

Sept. 18.—Japanese troops occupied Mukden in surprise attack. By end of month, important cities in Liaoning and Kirin fell into Japanese hands in rapid succession.

Sept. 24.—Japanese planes dropped bombs on Chinchow and other cities along Peiping-Liaoning railway.

Oct. 27.—Nanking and Canton representatives met in Shanghai for peace negotiations.

Nov. 10.—Japanese agents instigated uprising in Tientsin. In ensuing confusion, smuggled Henry Pu Yi to the Northeast.

Nov. 21.—Gen. Ma Chan-shan offered resistance to Japanese invaders in Heilungkiang.

Dec. 15.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek retired for second time in interest of party unity.

Dec. 28.—National Government was reorganized. Lin Sen made Chairman of the National Government, and Dr. Sun Fo, president of the Executive Yuan.

1932

Jan. 1.—The new government was inaugurated.

Jan. 2.—Japanese entered Chinchow.

Jan. 28.—Kuomintang Central Executive Committee accepted resignation of Dr. Sun Fo as president of Executive Yuan, and appointed Wang Ching-wei to fill vacancy. Dr. Sun named president of the Legislative Yuan.

Fighting started in Shanghai between Japanese troops and 19th Route Army. National Military Council created with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as chairman.

Jan. 30.—The National Government moved to Loyang in face of threat of Japanese attack on Nanking.

Feb. 7.—National Government and newly-created National Military Council issued circular telegram calling rank and file of National forces to arms.

Mar. 1.—Kuomintang CEC, held second plenary session in Loyang to devise measures to cope with national crisis.

Mar. 9.—Henry Pu Yi sworn in as Chief Executive of Japanese puppet state "Manchukuo" in northeast with Changchun as capital.

Mar. 14.—League of Nations' Lytton Commission of Enquiry arrived in Shanghai; reached Nanking March 26, Peiping April 9, then proceeded to Manchuria, where it remained for about six weeks. After second visit to Peiping and Tokyo, commission stayed in Peiping on July 20 to draft report.

April 7.—The National Emergency Conference in Loyang decided on prolonged resistance against Japanese aggression.

April 28.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Hankow to campaign against communists who took advantage of Manchurian situation to resume activities in central China. Communists in Hupeh, Honan and Anhwei completely routed. Communist Hupeh border strongholds at Chinchiatsai and Hsinchi captured. By end of year communists were dislodged from Central China.

May 1.—China and Japan agreed on armistice, bringing end to military conflict in Shanghai. The 19th Route Army transferred from Shanghai to Fukien.

Aug. 15.—National Government accepted resignation of Chang Hsueh-liang, Pacification Commissioner at Peiping, and ordered formation of Peiping branch military council. Chang's retirement was persistently sought by Wang Ching-wei.

Dec. 1.—National Government moved back to Nanking from Loyang.

Dec. 12.—The government announced decision to resume diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia.

Dec. 16.—Third plenary session of Kuomintang Fourth CEC opened in Nanking. Proposal adopted to convoke National Assembly in March, 1935, to adopt constitution for the country.

1933

Jan. 1.—Japanese troops outside Great Wall attacked Shanhaikwan, took city Jan. 3.

Feb. 27.—Japanese started general offensive in Jehol, captured Chengteh March 3.

Mar. 6.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Paoting to preside over military conference; took command of troops under Chang Hsueh-liang. General Ho Ying-chin made commander-in-chief of Chinese troops in north China next day.

Mar. 30.—Kuomintang decided to call emergency meeting of Central Executive Committee on July 1, later opposed by Canton leaders including Hu Han-min and Chen Chi-tang.

April.—Fighting in north China widened. Several strategic passes along Great Wall, notably Kupeikow and Hsifengkow, fell to Japanese. Japanese continued advance to Luanchow ready to attack Peiping and Tientsin.

May 27.—Feng Yu-hsiang, using national crisis, revolted in Kalgan.

May 31.—The Sino-Japanese Tangku Armistice agreement signed, ending hostilities in north China.

June 1.—The government, to appease southwest leaders, postponed emergency meeting of Kuomintang CEC. Announced instead Fifth National Congress for November 12.

Aug. 6.—Feng announced his retirement after revolt failed.

Nov. 20.—Leaders of 19th Route Army announced "people's government" in Fukien and declared independence.

Nov. 23.—Government started moving troops against Fukien.

Nov. 26.—Government sent peace mission to Canton and Hongkong to persuade Hu Han-min and other southern CEC members to attend the fourth plenary session of CEC, scheduled for December 20.

Dec.—Severe fighting began between Government and Fukien rebels.

1934

Jan. 15.—Fukien rebellion collapsed; 19th Route Army reorganized.

Jan. 20.—Kuomintang CEC fourth plenary session, postponed for one month, formally opened in Nanking.

Jan. 25.—Lin Sen reelected chairman of National Government for a second term by plenary session.

Jan. 31.—Generalissimo Chiang and Wang Ching-wei issued joint statement reaffirming government's policy to suppress the communist rebellion.

Chang Hsueh-liang returned from Italy and appointed in February deputy-commander of bandit suppression army in Hupeh, Honan and Anhwei.

Mar. 1.—Henry Pu Yi enthroned as "Emperor of Manchukuo" in Changchun.

Mar. 11.—New Life Movement launched in Nanchang.

July 8-13.—Important communist bases in south Kiangsi captured by government troops.

Oct. 9.—Government sent Wang Ching-wei and later Wang Chung-hui to Hongkong to effect reconciliation between Canton faction and Central Government.

Oct. 16.—Legislative Yuan approved revised Draft Constitution.

Oct. 24.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Peiping for an extensive tour of China's northwest. Itinerary covered Lanchow, Ningsia, Kalgan, Kweisui and Taiyuan.

Nov. 10.—Government troops captured Changting in Fukien from communists.

Nov. 11.—Government troops captured Juichin, capital of communist government in Kiangsi. Main force of rebels broken, remnants fled across Hunan, Szechwan and Kweichow. Retreat known as "long march" to the northwest.

Dec. 17.—The Southwest Political Council, meeting in Canton, resolved to support Central Government.

1935

Jan. 29.—Japanese troops invaded eastern Chahar.

Mar. 11.—China protested to Moscow against transfer of Chinese Eastern railway to "Manchukuo."

Mar. 27.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived in Kweiyang and established headquarters there to supervise campaign against communist remnants fleeing across southwestern provinces.

June 5.—Japanese troops, holding maneuvers and military conferences in Tientsin, demanded removal of northeastern troops from Hopei and Chahar, and closing down of Kuomintang organs in both provinces.

July 1.—Government accepted Japanese demands under duress.

Sept. 23.—British mission headed by Sir Frederick Leith-Ross, chief economic adviser to the British Government, arrived in Nanking, and stayed in China for about nine months.

Nov. 2.—Government appointed Generalissimo Chiang concurrently commander-in-chief of bandit suppression forces in northwest, and Chang Hsueh-liang, deputy commander-in-chief.

Nov. 3.—National Government issued proclamation, nationalizing all silver coins and making the notes issued by the Central Bank of China, Bank of China and Bank of Communications legal tender.

Nov. 11.—Japanese troops created reign of terror in Peiping and Tientsin by demanding arrest of Chinese educators, officials and students.

Nov. 12.—Fifth National Congress of Kuomintang, postponed twice as concession to Southwest party leaders, formally convened, with Canton representatives participating.

Nov. 19.—Generalissimo Chiang explained China's foreign policy as striving for peace while there is hope of peace, fighting only when driven to last extremity.

1936

Mar. 29.—Soviet Russia announced conclusion of mutual assistance pact with Outer Mongolia.

May 5.—Government promulgated the Draft Constitution.

May 12.—Hu Han-min, veteran Kuomintang leader and chairman of the CEC standing committee, died in Canton.

June 9.—Kwangsi military leaders called upon government to mobilize nation's military forces against Japan.

June 22.—Chen Chi-tang set up separate military council in Canton and sent troops to invade Hunan.

June 28.—Prince Teh of Inner Mongolia declared independence at Pailinmiao.

July 1.—Kwangtung's air force deserted Chen Chi-tang and pledged allegiance to Central Government.

July 9.—Gen. Yu Han-mou, one of Chen Chi-tang's commanders, deserted Chen and flew to Nanking.

July 13.—Second plenary session of Kuomintang CEC, meeting in Nanking, resolved to abolish Southwest Political Council and appointed Yu Han-mou commander-in-chief of Kwangtung forces.

Aug. 19.—Kwangsi set up independent regime in Kweilin.

Sept. 16.—Kwangsi problem amicably settled. Gen. Li Tsung-jen assumed office as director of Kwangsi Pacification Headquarters.

Oct. 15.—Standing Committee of Kuomintang CEC decided to postpone convocation of National Assembly, originally scheduled for November 12, 1936.

Oct. 17.—Japanese nationals started evacuation from cities along Yangtze river.

Oct. 18.—Puppet troops in Inner Mongolia invaded eastern Suiyuan.

Oct. 31.—Nation-wide celebration of Generalissimo Chiang's birthday.

Nov. 3-4.—Japanese troops in north China held two-day maneuver in Peiping-Tientsin area.

Nov. 16.—Severe fighting developed in eastern Suiyuan, with Gen. Fu Tso-yi's troops offering stiff resistance to Inner Mongolian invasion.

Nov. 24.—Gen. Fu's forces captured Pailinmiao in counter-attack, inflicting some 1,000 casualties on puppet troops.

Dec. 12.—Chang Hsueh-liang mutinied in Sian, holding Generalissimo Chiang and other high-ranking Government officials in confinement.

Dec. 22.—Madame Chiang, accompanied by W. H. Donald and T. V. Soong, flew to Sian.

Dec. 25.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned safely to Loyang.

1937

Jan. 4.—Chang Hsueh-liang was sentenced to ten years imprisonment by special military tribunal. The National Government, at request of Generalissimo Chiang, commuted his sentence and remanded him to National Military Council for discipline.

Feb. 10.—Government troops took over garrison duties in Sian.

Feb. 15.—Third plenary session of Kuomintang Fifth CEC convened in Nanking until Feb. 22.

Feb. 19.—Kuomintang CEC rejected Eight-Point Program advocated by Chang Hsueh-liang and others in Sian coup; reaffirmed the government policy to eradicate communism in China.

Feb. 20.—CEC resolved to convene National Assembly November 12 to enact national constitution.

April-May.—Japanese troops in north China rushed reinforcements to Peiping-Tientsin area and held large-scale maneuvers around the two northern cities.

May 27.—Generalissimo Chiang, at Kuling, summoned national leaders for conference.

July 7.—Japanese soldiers in night maneuvers in vicinity of Lukouchiao (Marco Polo Bridge), west of Peiping, attacked Wanping city.

July 10.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged written protest with Japanese Embassy in Nanking.

July 17.—China sent a memorandum to powers interested in Far East on Japan's latest provocation.

Generalissimo Chiang laid down four minimum conditions for settlement of Lukouchiao "incident" in Kuling speech.

July 25.—Japanese Army sent ultimatum to General Sung Cheh-yuang, Chinese commander in Hopei-Chahar area, demanding evacuation of Chinese troops from Peiping and its vicinity. Gen. Sung ordered his 29th Army to resist.

July 27.—Japanese troops attacked Peiping.

July 28.—Chinese troops evacuated Peiping during night.

July 29.—Fighting broke out in Tientsin.

July 31.—Chinese troops evacuated Tientsin.

Aug. 6.—Japan ordered evacuation of Japanese nationals from Hankow and transfer of Japanese Concession in Hankow to Chinese authorities.

Aug. 13.—Fighting broke out at Shanghai.

National Government announced that Yangtze river below Chinkiang had been mined and closed to shipping.

Aug. 14.—Chinese Air Force in action on Shanghai front.

Aug. 21.—Treaty of Non-aggression signed in Nanking between China and U.S.S.R.

Aug. 26.—Japanese planes bombed and machined-gunned car of British Ambassador Sir Hughe Knatchbull-Hugessen near Wusih, Kiangsu. Sir Hughe wounded in back.

Aug. 27.—Chinese troops evacuated Kalgan, capital of Chahar.

Aug. 30.—National Government ordered drafting of able-bodied male citizens for military service.

China sent statement to the League of Nations on development of events since July 7.

Sept. 1.—National Government issued CNC$500,000,000 Liberty Bonds.

Sept. 5.—Japanese Navy began blockade of China Coast from Chinwangtao, in north, to Pakhoi, in south.

Sept. 10.—"Chinese Red Army" reorganized as part of the Chinese national army.

Sept. 15.—China appealed to League Assembly against Japanese aggression under Article XVII of League Covenant.

Sept. 22.—Chinese Communist party renounced all communistic programs, pledged full support to Three People's Principles. Also announced abolition of "Chinese Soviet Republic" and "Red Army."

Sept. 24.—Generalissimo Chiang at interview with foreign press declared China was fighting for her existence, also for principles of the Nine-Power Treaty, the Anti-War Pact, and the Covenant of the League of Nations.

Oct. 5.—National Government in mandate ordered postponement of National Assembly scheduled for November 12, 1937.

Oct. 6.—Assembly of League of Nations adopted Advisory Committee's resolution pledging moral support to China. Japan pronounced guilty of invading China in violation of her treaty obligations.

U. S. State Department issued statement condemning Japan's invasion of China, upholding the principles and sanctity of treaties and deploring the use of force.

Oct. 14.—Kweisui fell to Japanese.

Oct. 16.—National Government accepted invitation to attend the Nine-Power Conference in Brussels on October 30.

Oct. 17.—Paotow fell.

Oct. 27.—Japan formally declined invitation to attend Nine-Power Conference.

Oct. 29.—Puppet Mongol state, called "Autonomous Government of Inner Mongolia," established by Japanese.

Nov. 3.—Nine-Power Conference opened in Brussels.

Nov. 5.—Japan, Germany and Italy signed Anti-Comintern Pact.

Nov. 9.—Chinese troops evacuated Taiyuan. Chinese troops began evacuation of Shanghai area.

Nov. 12.—Evacuation of Shanghai completed.

Nov. 20.—National Government announced removal from Nanking to Chungking.

Nov. 24.—With Italy dissenting, the Nine-Power Conference adopted report and declaration, urging suspension of hostilities and resort to peaceful settlement, and then adjourned indefinitely.

Dec. 12.—The U.S.S. Panay, Yangtze river gun-boat, bombed and sunk by Japanese planes near Hohsien, Anhwei. H.M.S. Ladybird and H.M.S. Bee shelled by Japanese artillery near Wuhu.

Dec. 13.—Japanese troops entered Nanking.

Dec. 14.—Japanese puppet regime, called "Provisional Government of the Republic of China" established in Peiping.

Dec. 24.—Hangchow fell.

Dec. 27.—Tsinan fell.

Dec. 31.—Tsingtao, port city of Shantung, evacuated.

1938

Jan. 1.—Government changes enabled Generalissimo to devote himself entirely to military affairs with Dr. H. H. Kung as head of the Executive Yuan. Ministry of Navy abolished, Ministry of Economic Affairs established, and Ministry of Railways merged with Ministry of Communications.

Jan. 16.—Japan announced Imperial Conference decision January 11, that Japan would henceforth refuse to deal with National Government.

Jan. 20.—Hsu Shih-ying, Chinese Ambassador to Japan, left Japan for China.

Feb. 2.—The League Council recommended that members of League individually extend aid to China.

Feb. 20.—Hitler announced Germany's decision to recognize puppet regime in Chinese Northeastern Provinces.

Feb. 23.—Chinese planes bombed Taiwan.

Feb. 25.—Chinese Government protested to Berlin against Germany's decision to recognize puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces.

Mar. 1.—First Sino-Soviet Credit Loan of US$50-million concluded.

Mar. 14.—National Government banned private foreign exchange operations. Sales of foreign exchange centralized through Central Bank of China.

Mar. 28.—New puppet regime under Japanese, called "Reformed Government of the Republic of China," established in Nanking.

Mar. 29.—Emergency National Congress of Kuomintang opened in Wuchang, closed April 1.

Apr. 1.—Emergency National Congress elected Generalissimo Chiang *Tsungtsai* of Kuomintang, and program of armed resistance and national reconstruction adopted. Decision to form Sin Min Chu I Youth Corps and People's Political Council.

Apr. 6.—Fourth Plenary Session of Central Executive Committe of Kuomintang opened at Wuchang, closed on April 8.

Apr. 7.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen reported victory at Taierhchwang.

May 1.—The Ministry of Finance issued 1938 National Defense Loan amounting to CNC$500-million and 1938 Gold Loan amounting to 100-million Customs Gold Units (1 CGU=CNC$20), £10-million and US$50-million.

May 6.—National Government lodged formal protest with Great Britain against Anglo-Japanese agreement on Chinese Maritime Customs.

May 12.—Japanese troops occupied Amoy.

Germany formally recognized Japanese puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces.

May 14.—The 101st Session of League of Nations Council adopted resolution urging League members to give serious and sympathetic consideration to requests for aid they might receive from China.

May 19.—Chinese troops evacuated Hsuchow.

May 20.—Chinese planes flew over western Japan and dropped leaflets, the first wartime visit of Japan proper by foreign military planes.

May 21.—Hitler ordered German military advisers serving with Chinese Army to return to Germany.

June 6.—Chinese troops evacuated Kaifeng.

June 7.—Yellow river dikes collapsed below Chengchow as result of hostilities.

June 11.—Chinese Embassy in Tokyo closed by order of National Government.

June 12.—Chinese troops evacuated Anking.

July 1.—Second Sino-Soviet Credit Loan of US$50-million concluded.

July 3.—French Government announced occupation of Paracel islands, Chinese possession south of Hainan island.

July 6.—First session of People's Political Council opened at Hankow.

July 7.—Chinese Ambassador to France, Wellington Koo, reminded French Foreign Minister Georges Bonnet of Chinese sovereignty over Paracel islands.

July 13.—Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction approved by People's Council.

July 26.—Kiukiang fell.

Sept. 11.—China officially invoked Article XVII of League Covenant.

Sept. 25.—Chinese Delegation at Geneva instructed to demand application of Article XVI of League Covenant.

Sept. 30.—League Council adopted report urging member states to abstain from any action that would weaken China and to consider individually measures to aid China. Members might act according to stipulations of Article XVI of Covenant.

Oct. 12.—Japanese troops landed at Bias Bay off Kwangtung coast.

Sinyang, in southern Honan, fell.

Oct. 21.—Japanese troops entered Canton.

Oct. 25.—Chinese troops evacuated Wuchang and Hankow.

Oct. 27.—Japanese Privy Council confirmed Japanese Government decision to sever relations with League of Nations.

Oct. 28.—Second Session of People's Political Council opened at Chungking, closed November 6.

Nov. 13.—Chinese troops evacuated Yochow, northern Hunan. Huge fire broke out at Changsha.

Dec. 18.—Wang Ching-wei deserted National Government and left Chungking.

Dec. 22.—Japanese Prime Minister Prince Konoye in a statement laid down three points as guiding principles for settlement of Sino-Japanese conflict and establishment of "New Order in East Asia."

Dec. 26.—Generalissimo Chiang reiterated China's determination to carry on war of resistance against Japan. He said Konoye's statement clearly revealed Japan's intention to conquer China.

Dec. 29.—Wang Ching-wei in Hongkong urged "peace" based on Konoye's three-point statement.

1939

Jan. 1.—Wang Ching-wei expelled from Kuomintang.

Sikang provincial government formally established at Kangting with General Liu Wen-hui as governor.

Jan. 20.—League Council adopted resolution requesting member states to hold consultations for taking effective measures to assist China.

Jan. 21.—Fifth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened at Chungking, closed January 30. Decided to create Supreme National Defense Council under chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

Feb. 2.—Sino-American Tung Oil Loan of US$25-million concluded.

Feb. 10.—Japanese forces invaded Hainan Island.

Feb. 11.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek declared Japanese occupation of Hainan Island marked turning point in history of the Pacific as beginning of Japan's naval dominance in that ocean.

Feb. 12.—Third Session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

Mar. 8.—British Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir John Simon, announced the grant by British banks guaranteed by the British Government, of £5-million credit to China to stabilize Chinese currency.

Mar. 15.—First Sino-British Export Credit Loan, £188,000 concluded.

Mar. 28.—Nanchang fell.

Mar. 31.—Japanese forces occupied Spratley islands in South China Sea.

May 1.—National Spiritual Mobilization Movement initiated.

May 3.—Chungking heavily bombed by Japanese planes.

May 4.—Chungking heavily bombed.

May 12.—Japanese marines landed at Kulangsu near Amoy.

Chungking heavily bombed. May 3, 4 and 12 bombings caused more than 10,000 casualties.

May 27.—League Council urged member states to continue to aid China individually, and asked that the League be kept informed of Japanese bombings of civilian population in China.

June 1.—The 1939 War Supplies Loan of CNC$600-million floated.

June 8.—National Government ordered arrest and punishment of Wang Ching-wei.

June 10.—Third Sino-Soviet Credit Loan, US$150-million, was concluded.

June 14.—Japanese began blockade of British and French concessions in Tientsin.

June 16.—New Sino-Soviet Commercial Treaty signed in Moscow.

June 18.—Remains of Genghis Khan removed from Suiyuan to Kansu.

June 21.—Japanese troops landed at Swatow.

July 15.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations on Tientsin issue began in Tokyo.

July 24.—Generalissimo Chiang stated that Anglo-Japanese accord on China reached in Tokyo would not be valid without China's approval.

July 26.—United States notified Japanese Government of decision to abrogate the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

Aug. 14.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations in Tokyo on Tientsin issue discontinued.

Aug. 18.—Second Sino-British Export Credit Loan, £2,859,000 concluded.

Aug. 23.—Pandit Nehru, Indian National Congress Leader, arrived in Chungking on goodwill visit and left on September 5.

Sept. 8.—Joint Board of Four Government Banks established with Generalissimo Chiang as chairman.

Sept. 9.—Fourth Session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking, closed September 18.

Generalissimo Chiang gave reassurance that China would establish a constitutional government.

Oct. 6.—Chinese troops won First Battle of Changsha.

Nov. 12.—Sixth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking, closed November 20. Generalissimo Chiang appointed president of the Executive Yuan.

Nov. 24.—Nanning fell.

Dec. 14.—China reelected to the League Council by League Assembly.

1940

Jan. 1.—The National Government ordered national adoption of new *hsien* (county) system.

Jan. 21.—Tao Hsi-Sheng and Kao Tsung-wu revealed Wang Ching-wei's secret treaty with Japanese signed in Shanghai on December 30, 1939.

Jan. 23.—Generalissimo Chiang denounced "Japan-Wang secret treaty."

National Government ratified Sino-Soviet Trade Agreement signed in June, 1939.

Feb. 22.—The 14th Reincarnation of the Dalai Lama enthorned at Lhasa.

Mar. 1.—Ministry of Finance issued first instalment of CNC$1,200,000,000 of the 1940 War Supplies Loan.

Mar. 30.—Wang Ching-wei's puppet regime established at Nanking. The Old "Provisional Government" at Peiping and "Reformed Government" at Nanking superseded by Wang's regime.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs declared Nanking puppet organization illegal and its acts null and void.

American Secretary of State, Cordell Hull, declared United States would not recognize Nanking puppet regime.

Apr. 1.—Fifth session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking, closed April 10.

Apr. 20.—The US$20-million Sino-American tin loan concluded.

May 1.—The Ministry of Finance issued first instalment of £10-million and US$50-million 1940 reconstruction gold bonds.

June 12.—Ichang fell.

June 19.—Anglo-Japanese agreement reached in Tokyo on Tientsin issue.

June 20.—Japanese blockade of British and French concessions in Tientsin lifted after 372 days of enforcement.

July 1.—Seventh Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking, closed July 8.

July 18.—Britain closed Burma Road for three months.

July 27.—President Roosevelt ordered embargo on oil and scrap iron shipments to Japan.

July 30.—Executive Yuan decided to establish National Food Administration.

Aug. 19-20.—Japanese bombers raided Chungking. The two days of bombing left four-fifths of Chungking in ruins.

Aug. 27.—Last contingent of British troops left Shanghai.

Sept. 1.—Second instalment of the CNC$1,200-million 1940 war supplies loan was issued.

Sept. 22.—Japan signed agreement with Indo-China. Japanese troops entered Indo-China in three columns. Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with France.

Sept. 26.—National Government ordered postponement of National Assembly scheduled for November.

Sept. 27.—Japan, Germany and Italy signed Tripartite Pact in Berlin.

Oct. 1.—Chungking officially made auxiliary capital of China.

Oct. 18.—Burma Road reopened after three months closure.

Oct. 29.—Japanese troops evacuated Nanning and southern Kwangsi.

Nov. 1.—Second instalment of the £10-million and US$50,000,000 1940 reconstruction gold loan was issued.

Nov. 30.—Wang Ching-wei puppet regime concluded "treaty" with Japan giving her virtual control over lower Yangtze, north China and Inner Mongolia.

Dec. 1.—National Government declared treaty signed between Wang Ching-wei and Japanese illegal.

1941

Jan. 18.—National Military Council ordered disbandment of New Fourth Army as measure of military discipline.

Feb. 1.—The first instalment of CNC$1,200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

Feb. 4.—The US$50-million Sino-American metal loan concluded.

Mar. 1.—First Session of the Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking; closed March 10.

First instalment of CNC$1,200-million 1941 reconstruction loan issued.

Mar. 24.—Eighth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed April 2.

Mar. 28.—Battle of Shangkao in northern Kiangsi ended.

Apr. 14.—Referring to Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, signed April 13 in Moscow, Foreign Minister Wang Chung-hui declared Outer Mongolia and Northeastern Provinces Chinese territory and the Soviet-Japanese declaration not binding on China.

Apr. 15.—President Roosevelt announced list of materials for China under Lend-Lease Act.

Apr. 21.—Japanese entered Foochow.

Apr. 25.—In Washington, the United States and Great Britain signed separate but parallel agreements with China for stabilization of Chinese national currency. The Sino-American agreement provided for American stabilization fund of $US50-million, while Sino-British agreement provided for a British stabilization fund of £5-million. Chinese banks would raise another US$20-million for same purpose.

May 13.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced exchange of diplomatic representatives with Australia.

June 1.—Second instalment of CNC$1,200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

June 5.—Third Sino-British export credit loan £5-million concluded.

June 17.—Ministry of Food established under Executive Yuan.

June 18.—Sino-British Yunnan-Burma boundary demarcation agreement signed in Chungking.

July 1.—Second instalment of CNC$1-200-million 1941 reconstruction loan issued.

Germany, Italy and Rumania recognized Nanking puppet regime.

July 2.—China severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy, and on July 10 with Rumania.

July 20.—China severed diplomatic relations with Denmark.

July 25.—Vichy revealed that Indo-China authorities agreed to "Japanese protection of peace" in entire Indo-China.

Great Britain cancelled Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and ordered freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets in British Empire.

United States ordered freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets in America.

July 28.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China considered entire Indo-China under Japanese military occupation.

Dutch East Indies ordered freezing of Japanese assets, cancelled Dutch-Japanese financial agreement and ordered embargo of Dutch oil to Japan.

Aug. 1.—Thailand recognized puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces and joined Japanese "Sphere of Co-Prosperity in East Asia."

United States ordered oil embargo on Japan.

Aug. 14.—President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill issued joint declaration of "Atlantic Charter."

Aug. 17.—China declared intention to abide by Atlantic Charter.

Aug. 26.—China recognized Czech Government under President Benes.

Aug. 28.—Chinese Goodwill Mission left Chungking for Burma; returned September 8.

Aug. 29.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs

announced exchange of diplomatic representatives between China and Canada.

Sept. 3.—Chinese recaptured Foochow.

Oct. 1.—Third instalment of CNC$1,-200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

Oct. 4.—Chengchow fell.

Oct. 8.—Chinese won second battle of Changsha.

Oct. 9.—American Military Mission under Maj.-Gen. John Magruder arrived in Chungking.

Oct. 31.—Chinese recaptured Chengchow.

Nov. 17.—Second Session of Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking for nine days.

Nov. 28.—Last group of American marines evacuated from Shanghai.

Dec. 8 (U.S. Dec. 7).—Japan declared war on United States and Great Britain, after attacking Pearl Harbor, Hongkong and other American and British bases in Far East. Shanghai, Kulangsu and Tientsin Settlements and concessions occupied by the Japanese.

Great Britain declared war on Japan.

Dec. 9 (U.S. Dec. 8).—China declared war on Japan, Germany and Italy.

United States declared war on Japan.

Dec. 15.—Ninth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking until December 23.

Dec. 17.—London announced formation of British Military Mission to China.

Dec. 20.—The American Volunteer Group of the Chinese Air Force took part in active combat over Kunming.

Dec. 22.—Gen. Sir Archibald Wavell, commander-in-chief of India, and Maj.-Gen. Brett of the American Army Air Corps, arrived in Chungking for two days consultation with Generalissimo Chiang.

Dec. 23.—T. V. Soong appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

1942

Jan. 1.—Joint declaration of the United Nations signed in Washington.

Jan. 2.—Chinese troops entered Burma.

Jan. 3.—Generalissimo Chiang accepted command of the China Theater of war.

Jan. 15.—Third Battle of Changsha won by Chinese.

Feb. 1.—The 1942 U. S. Government Credit to China, US$500-million, concluded.

Feb. 4.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek arrived in India, departed Feb. 22.

Feb. 25.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland after latter withdrew recognition of puppet regime in Chinese Northeastern Provinces.

Mar. 3.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived in Lashio for military conference with General Wavell.

Mar. 4.—Gen. Joseph Stilwell arrived in Chungking to assume command of all American Armed forces in China, Burma and India.

Mar. 5.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned to Chungking from visit to India and Burma.

Mar. 10.—Gen. Joseph Stilwell appointed chief of staff of the China Theater.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China and India would exchange resident representatives.

Mar. 12.—Chinese Military Mission headed by Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, left Chungking for America, arrived April 13.

Mar. 29.—National Mobilization Act promulgated.

Mar. 30.—President Roosevelt announced establishment of Pacific War Council in Washington, comprising China, United States, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and Netherlands.

Apr. 24.—Generalissimo Chiang received British decoration of Grand Cross of the Bath awarded by King George VI.

Apr. 29.—Chinese troops evacuated Lashio in northeastern Burma.

May 1.—The 1942 Allied Victory Gold Loan, US$100-million, floated.

Chinese troops evacuated Mandalay in central Burma.

May 3.—Japanese troops advanced into western Yunnan along the Burma Road.

May 5.—National Mobilization Act went into effect.

May 9.—Japanese invading army stopped on the Salween River by Chinese.

May 11.—Tengchung fell.

May 29.—Kinhwa fell.

June 2.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong and American Secretary of State Cordell Hull signed Sino-American Lend-Lease agreement in Washington.

July 1.—The 1942 Allied Victory Loan of CNC$1-billion issued.

July 4.—American Volunteer Group of Chinese Air Force superseded by the China Task Force of U. S. Army Air Force.

Aug. 28.—Chinese troops recaptured major part of Chekiang-Kiangsi railway.

Sept. 21.—Generalissimo Chiang concluded month-long trip to northwest. He visited Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai. Madame Chiang visited Sinkiang.

Sept. 29.—Wendell Willkie arrived in Sinkiang from U.S.S.R. He arrived in Chungking October 2 and departed October 9.

Oct. 10.—American and British governments announced intention of relinquishing extraterritorial and other related rights in China.

Oct. 22.—First session of Third People's Political Council convened; adjourned October 31.

Nov. 1.—Japan established Ministry of Great East Asia to rule occupied territories.

Nov. 10.—British Parliamentary Mission arrived in Chungking, departed December 11.

Nov. 12.—Tenth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed November 27.

Nov. 27.—Madame Chiang arrived in New York for medical treatment.

1943

Jan. 5.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced Chinese participation in United Nations declaration signed in London.

Jan. 11.—New Sino-American and Sino-British treaties concluded. Sino-American treaty signed in Washington, Sino-British treaty in Chungking.

Feb. 5.—Gen. H. H. Arnold, chief of the United States Army Air Force, and Sir John Dill, chief of staff, representing President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill respectively, arrived in Chungking for two-day conference with Generalissimo Chiang.

Feb. 17.—Madame Chiang arrived in Washington as guest of President and Mrs. Roosevelt at White House.

Japanese troops landed at Kwangchowwan.

Feb. 18.—Madame Chiang addressed combined session of U. S. Senate and House of Representatives.

Feb. 19.—American Lend-Lease Administration announced establishment of China Bureau.

Feb. 24.—Chinese Government lodged protest with Vichy regime over Japanese landing at Kwangchowwan.

Feb. 26.—Generalissimo Chiang broadcast to people of Thailand.

Mar. 6.—The 14th Air Force of United States Army began operation in China.

Mar. 15.—Generalissimo Chiang visited Kweichow.

Apr. 4.—Madame Chiang ended official visit to U. S. and returned to New York after visiting Chicago, San Francisco and Los Angeles.

Apr. 22.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong visited Canada.

May 19.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with Vichy regime over transfer of French Concession and other rights to Nanking puppets.

May 20.—Ratification of new Sino-American and Sino-British treaties exchanged in Washington and Chungking, respectively.

May 21.—Chinese and American governments exchanged notes in Chungking concerning criminal jurisdiction over American armed forces in China.

June 1.—The 1943 Allied Victory Loan, CNC$3-billion, issued.

June 10.—Washington announced agreement reached among China, the United States, Great Britain and U.S.S.R. on Inter-Allied Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

June 14.—Battle of western Hupeh ended. Japanese retreated to original positions.

June 15.—Madame Chiang arrived in Canada. Addressed joint session of Canadian Parliament July 16.

June 27.—Madame Chiang began journey home.

June 28.—Generalissimo Chiang received Grand Cordon of the Aztec Eagle from Mexican Government.

July 7.—Generalissimo Chiang received Legion of Merit, degree of chief commander, from the U. S. government.

Aug. 1.—Lin Sen, chairman of National Government, died. Generalissimo Chiang appointed acting chairman.

Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with Vichy regime.

Aug. 22.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong in Quebec to join Roosevelt-Churchill conference.

Aug. 27.—China recognized French Committee for National Liberation in London.

Sept. 6.—The 11th Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed September 13. Generalissimo Chiang elected chairman of National Government.

Sept. 18.—Second Session of Third People's Political Council convened in Chungking; closed September 27.

Oct. 10.—Generalissimo Chiang assumed office as chairman of National Government.

Oct. 16.—Lord Mountbatten, supreme commander in Southeast Asia, arrived in Chungking for military conference with Chinese military leaders.

Oct. 30.—Declaration on general security (Moscow Declaration) signed in Moscow by China, United States, Great Britain and U.S.S.R.

Nov. 4.—Chinese-American Composite Wing of Chinese Air Force went into action.

Nov. 9.—United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation agreement was signed in Washington.

Nov. 18.—Goodwill Mission to Great Britain left Chungking for India en route to England.

Nov. 21.—Generalissimo Chiang, Madame Chiang, arrived in Cairo for conference with President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill.

Dec. 1.—Joint declaration of Cairo Conference issued.

Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned to Chungking from Cairo.

Dec. 3.—Japanese troops entered Changteh.

Dec. 9.—Changteh recaptured.

Dec. 17.—Lieut.-Gen. A. Carton de Wiart, Prime Minister Churchill's personal representative to Generalissimo Chiang, arrived in Chungking.

President Roosevelt signed legislation repealing Chinese Exclusion Act.

Dec. 29.—Chinese Goodwill Mission to Great Britain received by King George VI.

1944

Jan. 25.—British Prime Minister Churchill received Chinese Goodwill Mission.

Feb. 7.—Chinese Military Mission, headed by General Yang Chieh, arrived in London.

Mar. 5.—Chinese troops recaptured Maingkwan in northern Burma.

Mar. 22.—Sino-Canadian Mutual Aid agreement signed in Ottawa.

Mar. 27.—Goodwill Mission to Great Britain returned to Chungking.

Apr. 14.—New Sino-Canadian treaty signed in Ottawa.

Apr. 22.—Joint Statements by experts on the establishment of an international monetary fund of the United and Associated Nations published in Washington, London, and Chungking.

Chengchow fell.

Apr. 23.—China elected to governing body of the International Labor Office.

May 1.—Gen. Z. Pechkoff, representative of French National Liberation Committee, presented credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek.

May 2.—Agreement on fourth Sino-British export credit loan of £50,000,000 signed in London.

Sino-British Lend-Lease agreement signed in London.

May 11.—Chinese forces in western Yunnan established bridgeheads west of Salween river.

May 17.—Chinese and American forces began siege of Myitkyina in northern Burma.

Military Mission headed by Gen. Shang Chen arrived in Washington.

May 20.—The 12th Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Fifth CEC opened in Chungking until May 26.

May 25.—Loyang fell.

June 15.—American superfortresses raided Japan proper for the first time.

June 16.—Kamaing in northern Burma captured by Chinese.

June 17.—Japanese completed occupation of Peiping-Hankow railway.

June 18.—Changsha fell.

June 21.—Henry Wallace arrived in Chungking.

June 23.—Dr. H. H. Kung, vice-president of Executive Yuan, arrived in Washington for United Nations monetary and finance conference.

June 25.—Mogaung, in northern Burma, captured by Chinese.

June 26.—President Roosevelt presented scroll to the men, women, and children of Chungking for bravery under enemy bombing.

July 1.—The 1944 Allied Victory Loan of CNC$5-billion floated.

July 2.—Henry Wallace left for America.

July 9.—Madame Chiang left for America for medical treatment.

Aug. 1.—Regulations for safeguarding the freedom of person were enforced.

Aug. 3.—Organized Japanese resistance at Myitkyina ceased.

Aug. 8.—Hengyang fell.

Aug. 28.—V. K. Wellington Koo, head of the Chinese Delegation to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, arrived in Washington.

Sept. 5.—Third session of Third People's Political Council opened in Chungking until September 18.

Sept. 6.—President Roosevelt's personal emissaries, Donald Nelson and Maj.-Gen. Patrick Hurley, arrived in Chungking.

Special units from Chinese Expeditionary Force in western Yunnan and Chinese Army in India fighting in northern Burma joined forces at Kaoliangkung pass on Yunnan-Burma border, marking first overland contact between China and Southeast Asia Theater since Japanese occupation of Burma in 1942.

Sept. 14.—Chinese troops recaptured Tengchung city.

Sept. 15.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung, government representative, and Lin Tsu-han, communist representative, reported on the Government-Communist negotiations at People's Political Council.

Sept. 28.—French Government presented the Yangtze river gunboat S.S. *Le Balny* to Chinese Government. The gunboat was renamed *Fa Ku.*

Sept. 29.—Chinese-American-British phases of Dumbarton Oaks Conference began.

Oct. 5.—Foochow fell.

Oct. 9.—Results of Dumbarton Oaks Conference published. Establishment of general assembly, security council and international court of justice proposed. Chinese-American-British phase of the Conference concluded.

Oct. 14.—Government called 100,000 educated youth to volunteer for military service.

Oct. 23.—China, together with United States, Great Britain, and U.S.S.R., announced recognition of Provisional Government of France.

Oct. 26.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced recognition of Government of Italy.

Oct. 29.—The White House announced recall (October 24) of Gen. Joseph Stilwell. Maj.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer appointed Commanding General of U. S. Forces in China Theater. He was also appointed chief of staff to Generalissimo Chiang, supreme commander of China Theater.

Lieut.-Gen. Daniel I. Sultan was appointed Commanding General of U. S. Army Forces in Burma and India Theater. He was appointed by Generalissimo Chiang as commander of all Chinese forces based in India.

Nov. 3.—Chinese troops recaptured Lungling.

Nov. 10.—Kweilin fell.

Wang Ching-wei died in Japan.

Nov. 11.—Liuchow fell.

Nov. 15.—Ishan fell.

Nov. 16.—Chinese War Production Board established under the direction of Wong Wen-hao.

The Ministry of Conscription organized with Gen. Lu Chung-lin as minister.

Donald Nelson returned to Chungking with American experts to assist Chinese War Production Board.

Nov. 19.—Lieut.-Gen. D. I. Sultan announced construction of oil pipeline from India to China.

Supreme National Defense Council appointed Gen. Chen Cheng, Minister of War; Chang Li-sheng, Minister of Interior; O. K. Yui, Minister of Finance; and Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education.

Nov. 21.—Chinese Training and Combat Command of the U. S. Forces, China Theater, was established with Brig.-Gen. Frank Dorn as commanding general.

Nov. 29.—United National War Crimes Sub-Commission for the Far East and Pacific formed in Chungking with Wang Chung-hui as chairman.

Dec. 1.—Chinese troops recaptured Chefang in western Yunnan.

Dec. 4.—T. V. Soong appointed acting president of Executive Yuan.

Dec. 5.—Tushan fell and recaptured on December 8.

Dec. 15.—Chinese troops recaptured Bhamo in northern Burma.

Dec. 25.—Headquarters of Chinese Ground Forces inaugurated in Kunming with Gen. Ho Ying-chin as commander-in-chief.

1945

Jan. 1.—President Chiang Kai-shek promised to call National Assembly to adopt constitution before end of the war.

War Transport Board was formed under the direction of Gen. Yu Fei-peng.

Jan. 8.—Maj.-Gen. Patrick Hurley, U. S. Ambassador to China, presented credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek.

Jan. 15.—Chinese troops recaptured Namkhan in northern Burma.

Jan. 20.—Chinese troops recaptured Wanting on Yunnan-Burma border.

Jan. 21.—Test convoy over the Tengchung cutoff (from Myitkyina to Kunming) arrived in Kunming.

Jan. 22.—Lieut-Gen. D. I. Sultan announced that Ledo-Burma Road was entirely cleared of Japs.

Jan. 23.—Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration formally inaugurated with T. F. Tsiang as director.

Jan. 28.—President Chiang broadcast to American and British peoples naming Ledo-Burma road the Stilwell Road in honor of Gen. Joseph Stilwell.

First convoy from India passed Wanting entering Chinese territory. The convoy welcomed by official Chinese delegation headed by T. V. Soong.

Feb. 4.—First convoy over Stilwell Road arrived in Kunming.

Feb. 12.—First regular convoy over Tengchung cutoff arrived in Kunming.

Mar. 1.—President Chiang announced National Assembly would convene November 12 to adopt constitution.

Mar. 5.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced joint invitations to United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco issued by China, U.S.S.R., United Kingdom and United States.

Mar. 7.—Lord and Lady Mountbatten arrived in Chungking.

Chinese troops recaptured Lashio in northern Burma.

Mar. 9.—Japanese troops in Indo-China disarmed all French and Indo-Chinese troops.

Mar. 13.—Japanese troops seized Kwangchowwan.

Mar. 16.—Hsipaw, west of Lashio, captured by Chinese.

Mar. 20.—Mandalay taken by British.

Mar. 26.—Chinese delegation to San Francisco Conference named. T. V. Soong appointed head.

Mar. 28.—Wilbur Forrest, Ralph McGill, and Carl Ackerman, representatives of American Association of Newspaper Editors, arrived in Chungking on world tour.

Mar. 29.—Siangyang in northwestern Hupeh fell.

Apr. 1.—Japanese Government announced incorporation of Korea and Formosa into Japan Proper.

Apr. 3.—Ratification of Sino-Canadian Treaty, signed on April 17, 1944, exchanged in Chungking.

Apr. 4.—Nanyang in southwest Honan captured by Japanese .

Apr. 5.—U.S.S.R. renounced Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact.

Apr. 11.—Laohokow in northwestern Hupeh fell.

Apr. 12.—President Roosevelt died.

Laohokow recaptured by Chinese.

Apr. 16.—Chinese regained Siangyang.

Apr. 22.—U. S. Ambassador Patrick Hurley returned to Chungking from America via London and Moscow.

Apr. 25.—United Nations Conference on International Organization held at San Francisco.

May 5.—Kuomintang Sixth National Conference opened in Chungking until May 18.

May 8.—German unconditional surrender officially announced.

May 17.—President Chiang unanimously reelected *Tsungtsai* of Kuomintang.

May 18.—Chinese recaptured Foochow.

May 20.—Hochih in northern Kwangsi recovered.

India-China oil pipeline completed.

May 21.—Chingchengkiang in Kwangsi recaptured by Chinese.

May 27.—Chinese recaptured Nanning.

May 28.—First Plenary Session of Sixth Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking until May 31.

May 30.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced establishment of diplomatic relations with Argentina.

May 31.—Kuomintang CEC elected T. V. Soong president and Wong Wen-hao, vice president of Executive Yuan.

June 6.—Chinese crossed border from Kwangsi into Indo-China.

June 8.—Chinese recaptured Lungchow in southwestern Kwangsi.

June 11.—For National Government, H. H. Kung conferred Special Grand Cordon of Pao-ting (Precious Tripod) upon Admirals of the Fleet William Leahy and Ernest King, and General of the Army Douglas MacArthur.

June 14.—Chinese recaptured Ishan in northern Kwangsi.

June 18.—Chinese regained Wenchow in Chekiang.

June 26.—United Nations Charter signed in San Francisco.

June 27.—T. V. Soong left for Moscow.

Chinese troops recaptured Liuchow in Kwangsi.

June 30.—T. V. Soong and party arrived in Moscow and received by Marshal Stalin.

July 1.—Six People's Political Councillors left Chungking for Yenan to consult with Mao Tse-tung.

July 4.—T. V. Soong received by Kalinin.

July 7.—First session of Fourth People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

Sino-British agreement concerning jurisdiction of one nation's armed forces in the territory of the other was signed in Chungking.

July 11.—Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault, retired as commander of the 14th U.S.A.A.F. in Kunming.

July 17.—T. V. Soong arrived in Chungking from Moscow with Soviet Ambassador A. A. Petrov.

July 18.—Big Three Conference of President Truman, Prime Minister Churchill, and Generalissimo Stalin, opened at Potsdam, Germany.

July 25.—O. K. Yui appointed governor of Central Bank of China to succeed H. H. Kung.

July 26.—President Chiang, President Truman, and Prime Minister Churchill issued ultimatum to Japan, ordering her to surrender unconditionally or to face prompt and utter destruction.

July 27.—Chinese troops recaptured Kweilin in Kwangsi.

July 30.—Wang Shih-chieh was appointed minister of foreign affairs to succeed T. V. Soong.

Aug. 2.—Big Three Conference at Potsdam ended. A joint communique published simultaneously in Washington, London and Moscow the next day.

Aug. 5.—T. V. Soong and Wang Shih-chieh left Chungking for Moscow to continue Sino-Soviet negotiations.

Aug. 6.—American superfortress dropped first atomic bomb on Hiroshima.

Aug. 7.—T. V. Soong and Wang Shih-chieh arrived in Moscow.

Aug. 8.—U.S.S.R. declared war on Japan as of August 9.

Aug. 9.—Soviet army entered Manchuria.

Second Atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki.

Aug. 10.—Radio Tokyo announced that Japan was ready to accept the Potsdam Declaration. Official statement of Japanese Government made through the Swiss Government.

Aug. 14.—Japan accepted Allied demand for unconditional surrender, the Japanese Emperor to rule country subject to authority of Supreme Allied Commander.

Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed in Moscow.

Aug. 15.—Legislative Yuan unanimously approved the United Nations Charter.

President Chiang invited Mao Tse-tung to come to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 16.—T. V. Soong arrived in Washington for conference with President Truman.

Aug. 17.—President Chiang sent a second telegram to Mao Tse-tung inviting him to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 20.—Wang Shih-chieh returned from Moscow.

Aug. 21.—Maj.-Gen. Takeo Imai, representing Gen. Okamura, arrived in Chihkiang to receive surrender conditions from Lieut.-Gen. Hsiao Yi-shu, chief of staff to Gen. Ho Ying-chin.

American Lend-Lease services were terminated.

Aug. 23.—President Chiang sent third telegram to Mao Tse-tung inviting him to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 24.—President Chiang in a statement clarified China's stand in relation to principle of nationalism and world peace.

Legislative Yuan ratified the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

President Chiang signed the United Nations Charter on behalf of China.

Aug. 26.—Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance published.

Aug. 27.—Lieut.-Gen. Leng Hsin, deputy chief of staff to Gen. Ho Ying-chin, arrived in Nanking with 159 officers and men to establish the forward echelon of headquarters of Chinese Ground Forces.

Allied troops began landing in Japan.

Aug. 28.—Chinese gendarmes entered Shanghai.

Mao Tse-tung arrived in Chungking from Yenan, accompanied by U. S. Ambassador Patrick Hurley.

Aug. 29.—Gen. Chen Yi appointed governor of Taiwan.

Aug. 30.—T. V. Soong arrived in Ottawa, Canada, for discussions with Canadian authorities.

Aug. 31.—Chinese troops entered Indo-China and liberated Laokai.

Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui appointed director of Generalissimo's headquarters in the Northeastern Provinces.

Three Northeastern Provinces were divided into nine provinces.

Sept. 2.—Instrument for Japanese surrender signed on board U.S.S. Missouri by Shigemitsu and Gen. Umetsu. Gen. MacArthur signed for the Allies. Gen. Hsu Yung-chang represented China.

Sept. 5.—First unit of Chinese New Sixth Army arrived in Nanking by air.

Wang Shih-chieh left Chungking for London to attend Foreign Ministers Conference.

Sept. 6.—First unit of Chinese 49th Army arrived in Shanghai by air.

Sept. 9.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin received formal surrender of Japanese in China from Gen. Okamura in Nanking.

Sept. 12.—Chinese took over Shanghai and completed reoccupation of Canton.

Sept. 14.—Premier T. V. Soong concluded series of conversations with President Truman in Washington.

Sept. 17.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin announced all Japanese civilians in China would be deported to Japan.

Sept. 19.—Premier T. V. Soong declared that China would respect French sovereignty in Indo-China.

Sept. 20.—T. F. Tsiang made known China's request for US$945-million worth of UNRRA relief.

Sept. 25.—Disarmament of Japanese troops in Nanking completed.

Oct. 3.—Gen. Lu Han appointed governor of Yunnan Province to succeed Gen. Lung Yun.

U. S. Marines landed at Tientsin.

Oct. 6.—Maj.-Gen. Keller E. Rockey, commander of U. S. Marines in north China, accepted surrender of Japanese forces in Tientsin area on behalf of Generalissimo Chiang, supreme commander.

Oct. 10.—President Truman greeted people of China on 34th Anniversary of Chinese Republic and pledged American assistance to accomplish "democratic objectives" of Dr. Sun.

U. S. Secretary of State Byrnes announced he had invited powers interested in Far East to send delegates to Washington for meeting scheduled for October 23 to form an Allied Advisory Commission. (Opening meeting postponed until October 30.)

Oct. 11.—A joint Government-Communist declaration announced agreement had been reached after six weeks of negotiations, unsolved problems to be settled by Political Consultation Conference.

Oct. 14.—Chinese forces landed on Hainan island to disarm Japanese.

Oct. 17.—Chungking announced Russian forces had begun leaving Manchuria and complete withdrawal should be effected by end of November.

Oct. 22.—Lieut.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer, U. S. commander in China, reported in Washington that U. S. troops in China would be cut to 6,000 by January 1, but 53,000 marines would help China repatriate some four million Japanese.

Returns of plebiscite in Outer Mongolia indicated overwhelming vote in favor of independence.

Oct. 28.—Fighting between government and communist forces spread to 11 provinces. Government compromise proposal rejected.

Oct. 29.—Chungking reported Chinese Red troops entrenched in Manchuria along rail lines and behind three ports where U. S. warships were scheduled to land national troops.

Oct. 31.—Gen. Yen Hsi-shan, Shansi governor, reported 100,000 communists attacking Tatung. Government's offer not to fire on Reds, if they withdrew from railroads and allowed national troops to pass, rejected by Yenan.

Nov. 1.—Announcement made that in accordance with terms of Chinese-Soviet treaty, Soviet troops would begin withdrawal from Manchuria November 2 and complete the withdrawal by December 1.

Nov. 2.—Chungking reported 20,000 Chinese Communist troops led by Gen. Ho Lung were besieging Kweisui.

Chungking said Chinese Government had requested creation of a five-year U. S. military mission to train and develop China's armed services.

Nov. 3.—Information Minister K. C. Wu announced that a four-point proposal was sent to Yenan.

Nov. 4.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin in Peiping announced government decision to reopen rail lines through communist-held areas. Reds attacked north Hupeh cities.

President Chiang declared support for a free Korea on the eve of President Kim Koo's departure for Seoul.

Nov. 5.—Information Minister Wu branded as "groundless" charges of Yenan radio and communist paper in Chungking that American armed assistance to Government forces was aimed at Reds. Gen. Wedemeyer denied "clashes" between U. S. Marines and communists.

Chinese Government submitted to Allied Headquarters a list of 300 Japanese war criminals headed by Emperor Hirohito and including every Japanese premier and foreign minister for past 8 years.

Nov. 7.—Gen. Wedemeyer in Peiping and Secretary Byrnes in Washington announced U. S. Marines would be recalled soon.

Nov. 8.—Soviet troops withdrew from Hulutao and Yingkow, leaving Chinese Reds in control of ports, while national forces remained on U. S. ships offshore.

Nov. 10.—Government troops reported in clashes with communists near Shanhaikwan.

Nov. 11.—Chungking disclosed Chinese-Soviet negotiations permitted flying government troops into Manchuria since communists barred land and sea routes.

Nov. 13.—Chungking said Russia agreed to let government fly 1,500 troops a day into Changchun, Manchurian capital, from Peiping, and Soviet forces were withdrawing toward Vladivostok, northern Korea and Port Arthur.

Chungking reported communist troops surrounded airfields evacuated by Russians, making landing of government troops by air transport impossible.

Nov. 16.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of government forces, reported capture of Shanhaikwan.

Nov. 17.—Communist forces continued to besiege Paotow and Kweisui.

Nov. 18.—Government forces captured Kuimen pass along the Great Wall and pushed on to Chinhsien.

Nov. 22.—Government troops captured Lienshan, 10 miles from Hulutao, and lifted two-week communist siege of Paotow.

Nov. 23.—Government troops penetrated 130 miles into Manchuria, half way to Mukden.

Nov. 25.—Government forces captured Chienshien after 30-mile advance.

Nov. 26.—President Chiang declared at the newly formed Supreme Economic Council: "We shall spare no effort to bring internal order and security to the nation." He revealed 1,000,000 Japanese still in China.

Nov. 27.—Maj.-Gen. Patrick J. Hurley resigned as Ambassador to China. Gen. George C. Marshall appointed U. S. President's special envoy to China with ambassadorial rank.

Chungking reported Russians agreed to help government forces take over Manchuria and had ordered Chinese Communists out of Changchun and Mukden.

Nov. 28.—Far Eastern Advisory Commission announced its decision to visit Japan at end of year.

Dec. 1.—Soviet Union postponed withdrawal of troops from Manchuria until January 3.

Dec. 2.—Government troops reached Tahushan, 65 miles southwest of Mukden, in drive into Manchuria.

Dec. 6.—Government forces halted within 25 miles of Mukden, awaiting negotiations with Soviet Marshal Rodion Y. Malinovsky at Changchun.

Dec. 7.—Over 60 percent of Japanese troops in China were disarmed, Gen. Ho Ying-chin, commander-in-chief of Chinese Army, announced.

Dec. 8.—250 officials in the Japanese-sponsored "North China Government" in Peiping were put under arrest.

Dec. 10.—Attack by 120,000 communists on Lincheng on Tientsin-Pukow railway in Shantung for 13 days.

Dec. 11.—President and Mme. Chiang visited Peiping for first time in ten years.

Dec. 12.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer reported 943,000 Japanese soldiers disarmed in China Theater.

Dec. 15.—President Truman issued statement on U. S. policy in China, calling for end of civil strife in China and united government under President Chiang.

Dec. 17.—Seven communist delegates arrived in Chungking to resume negotiations with the government.

Dec. 18.—Siege of Paotow and Kweisui lifted after two months of unsuccessful assaults by communists.

President Chiang arrived by plane in Nanking from Peiping.

Dec. 22.—Gen. George C. Marshall, U. S. Special Envoy, arrived in Chungking by plane from Nanking, and was met by Premier T. V. Soong and Chou En-lai, communist representative.

Dec. 23.—President and Mme. Chiang returned to Chungking after recent visit to Peiping and Nanking.

Gen. Marshall conferred with communist leaders.

Dec. 25.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of government forces in the northeast, began drive to clear Jehol Province of communist troops.

Dec. 27.—Government and communist delegates resumed discussion of cessation of hostilities and convening of Political Consultation Conference.

Big three Foreign Ministers conference announced series of agreements on the establishment of international control of atomic energy; creation of Far Eastern Commission and Allied Council for Japan; ultimate reestablishment of a Free Korea; and withdrawal of Soviet and U. S. troops from China.

Dec. 29.—Lieut-Gen. Wedemeyer announced U. S. troops would help government forces move into Manchuria.

Dec. 31.—Government answered communist truce proposal with three-point plan, proposing Gen. Marshall as mediator.

President Chiang offered other political parties, besides Kuomintang, representation in government but decried autonomous armies.

1946

Jan. 1.—Chinese Navy was placed under direction of the Army.

Jan. 2.—Government troops entered Jehol province.

Jan. 3.—Communists accepted government's proposal to make Gen. Marshall mediator in peace negotiations.

Jan. 4.—Communist party agreed in principle with government that hostilities should be stopped simultaneously with restoration of communications.

Jan. 5.—China recognized independence of Outer Mongolian Republic.

Partial peace settlement granting Kazakhs high degree of autonomy was reached between government and Kazakhs of Sinkiang province.

Jan. 7.— Government and communist leaders held first truce meeting with Gen. Marshall acting as mediator.

Jan. 10.—Cease-fire agreement between Government and communist representatives was announced at Political Consultation Conference (P.C.C.). In opening speech, President Chiang announced government's decision on civil liberties, equality of political parties, local self-government and release of political prisoners.

Jan. 11.—Second P.C.C. session was held with Chang Chun and Chou En-lai, government and communist representatives, respectively, reporting on newly concluded truce discussions.

Jan. 14.—Government forces completed occupation of Sinmin, 31 miles northwest of Mukden.

Jan. 15.—Chang Chun announced setting up of three-man military sub-committee, which held its first meeting on reorganization of communist 18th Group Army and its garrison areas.

Jan. 16.—U. S. transports moved 6,000 New 6th Army men into Manchuria.

Jan. 20.—Mme. Chiang arrived in Peiping enroute to northeast on goodwill mission.

Jan. 21.—National Military Council spokesman said hostilities continued on same scale as before the January 10 truce.

Jan. 23.—Gen. Marshall accepted advisory position on military sub-committee for studying unification of government and communist armies.

Chinese delegation to United Nations

Chief-of-Staff Conference, led by Gen. Shang Chen, former head of Chinese Military Mission in U. S., left for London.

Jan. 27.—Democratic League members withdrew from P.C.C. session in protest against police search in home of one of their delegates.

Jan. 28.—Supreme National Defense Council passed resolution to repeal all laws and decrees restricting fundamental freedoms of people.

Jan. 31.—P.C.C. reached complete agreement on government reorganization on the basis of coalition of political parties. Among important resolutions adopted at final session: expansion of State Council, nationalization and reorganization of armies, appointment of special committee to review Draft Constitution.

Feb. 5.—President Chiang disclosed he had not entertained thought of being a presidential candidate under new regime. Government took over administration of the Pescadores.

Feb. 11.—Washington and London published text of secret Yalta agreement, signed February 11, 1945, by Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin.

The Executive Hdqrs. in Peiping, composed of government, communist and U. S. representatives, announced Government-Communist agreements to restore eight disrupted railways in north China.

President Chiang paid first visit to Shanghai in eight years.

Feb. 13.—China and Mongolian People's Republic concluded amity pact.

Three-man Military Subcommittee held first formal meeting.

Feb. 15.—Military Rehabilitation Conference convoked by Chinese Army Hdqrs. opened in Nanking.

Washington disclosed U. S. had asked Chungking and Moscow in identical notes for information on current Chinese-Soviet talks.

Communists in Yenan demanded joint control of Manchuria and limitation of government troops sent there.

Feb. 17.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming's forces of the 6th and 13th armies captured Liaochung near Mukden.

Feb. 19.—Quo Tai-chi was appointed Chinese delegate to United Nations Security Council.

Feb. 21.—Chinese students of 14 educational institutions in and around Chungking started strike in protest against Soviet failure to withdraw from Manchuria.

Feb. 22.—Demonstration by 30,000 Chungking students against Russia and Chinese Communists.

Feb. 23.—Seven members of Control Yuan protested to Foreign Affairs Ministry against Yalta agreement.

Students in Chungking staged another demonstration against Soviet delay in withdrawing troops from Manchuria.

Feb. 24.—President Chiang returned to Chungking from Shanghai by plane after 14-day tour of Shanghai, Nanking and Hangchow.

A manifesto by 110 professors of National Southwest Associated University in Kunming demanded publication of current negotiations between the Chinese and Soviet governments and the fulfillment of provisions of Chinese-Soviet treaty.

Feb. 25.—Agreement reached by Military Sub-committee for army reorganization and nationalization of communist troops signed.

Supreme National Defense Council passed provisional regulations governing foreign exchange transactions.

President Chiang announced government's three principles in negotiations with Soviet Government.

Feb. 26.—Secretary Byrnes denied knowledge of Big Three agreement that authorized Soviet removal of machinery from Manchuria.

Soviet Supreme military command in northeast announced that Soviet forces would complete evacuation before departure of U. S. troops from China, "or, at any rate, not later than that."

Feb. 27.—China and France signed treaty for relinquishment of French extraterritorial and related rights in China, and agreement on relations in Indo-China.

Feb. 28.—Gen. Marshall, Gen. Chang Chih-chung and Chou En-lai of Military Sub-committee arrived in Peiping on inspection tour of north China.

Mar. 1.—Second Plenary Session of Kuomintang 6th Central Executive and Supervisory committee opened in Chungking.

Mar. 4.—Central Bank of China fixed foreign exchange rate at CN$2,020 to US$1.

Mar. 5.—U. S. decided to lend China 100 Liberty ships and 100 landing craft to help repatriate Japanese war prisoners and civilians in China.

Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh told Kuomintang meeting China had rejected Soviet claim to all enterprises in Manchuria that had served Japanese Kwantung army.

Mar. 6.—Information Minister K. C. Wu announced abolition of press censorship in recovered areas.

Liu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, stated that delay in Soviet withdrawal was due to technical difficulties which Soviet authorities did not specify.

Mar. 7.—One million people in Hunan reported facing starvation, lack of clothing, and proper medical care.

Mar. 8.—Minister of Communications Yu Fei-peng announced government's program to build 20,000 kms. of highways in three stages beginning this year.

Executive Hdqrs. in Peiping ordered communists in Jehol, who violated truce agreements, to withdraw to northwest of Chihfeng within 24 hours.

Mar. 9.—Chungking reported 22 northbound trains loaded with Soviet troops had left Mukden since March 7.

Mar. 10.—Executive Yuan instructed Chinese Maritime Customs to permit foreign vessels to sail freely into Chinese harbors until March 31, 1947.

Mar. 11.—Soviet authorities officially notified Chinese Government of withdrawal of Red troops from Mukden.

Gen. Marshall left Chungking for U. S. to report to President Truman.

Mar. 12.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung reported to Kuomintang C.E.C. contents of agreement granting self-government to Kazakhs in Sinkiang.

Chinese forces entered Mukden to assume garrison duties following evacuation of Soviet troops.

Food Minister Hsu Kan declared UNRRA deliveries to China not up to schedule and China's food problem critical.

Mar. 13.—Central News Agency reported Chinese Communists set up puppet regimes in Kirin, Heilungkiang and Hokiang provinces, turning northeast into special area.

Chinese troops moved into Mukden, following complete withdrawal of Soviet forces from city.

Mar. 16.—Kuomintang C.E.C. unanimously ratified P.C.C. agreements and adopted important resolutions on military, rehabilitation, relief, communications and political problems.

Mar. 17.—President Chiang obtained Kuomintang CEC ratification of all agreements for reorganization of government and cooperation with communists. At his insistence a resolution condemning negotiations with the U.S.S.R. was defeated.

Mar. 19.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer said U. S. should assist China in repatriation of Japanese war prisoners and civilians in Manchuria.

Chinese Communists threatened to break unity agreement, accusing Kuomintang of failing to relinquish control over government.

Mar. 20.—People's Political Council held first meeting since V-J Day; main item on agenda was national reconstruction.

U. S. Export-Import Bank granted China US$33-million cotton credit and authorized in principle a slightly larger loan with which to buy ships and machinery.

Mar. 22.—In accordance with government regulations governing foreign exchange, Central Bank of China designated 27 banks in Shanghai to handle foreign exchange transactions.

Mar. 24.—Moscow confirmed announcement that U.S.S.R. would complete withdrawal of Red troops from Manchuria by end of April.

Mar. 26.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui announced national budget of CNC$2,-524,900,000,000 at People's Political Council.

Mar. 29.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer, on behalf of U. S., presented Generalissimo Chiang the Distinguished Service Medal.

Mar. 30.—Government awarded Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer Order of Blue-Sky-White-Sun for meritorious service.

Apr. 1.—President Chiang told P.P.C. that Chinese Communist demands in Manchuria would not be considered until government completed taking-over control from Russians.

Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer announced U. S. Army in China Theater would disband on May 1.

Apr. 2.—Withdrawal of Soviet troops from Harbin, Manchuria, reported in progress.

Apr. 3.—An estimated 15-million Chinese on the verge of starvation.

P.P.C. closed session with five-point resolution on agreements of Political Consultation Conference.

Apr. 7.—Chungking announced schedule of Soviet evacuation of Manchuria.

Government New First Army reported within 70 miles of Changchun.

Two truce-enforcement teams began work of halting Government-Communist conflicts in Manchuria.

Apr. 9.—Chinese Communist paper made violent personal attack on President Chiang.

Apr. 11.—President Truman reported that Gen. Marshall's conferences in Washington had been very successful and that General Marshall would return to China at once.

Chinese Communists were reported concentrated in Harbin and Changchun regions.

U. S. Army personnel in China reduced to 5,000 to serve with American Military Advisory Group.

Apr. 12.—Death of four leading Chinese Communists in Yenan-bound U. S. Army plane on April 8 was confirmed; casualties included eight other members of Yenan delegation to Chungking parley and American crew of 4.

Chen Kung-po, No. 2 puppet, was sentenced to death.

Apr. 13.—Government offered to limit number of troops in Manchuria if Chinese Communists would withhold forces, clear Mukden-Peiping rail line and permit government armies to occupy Changchun and Harbin.

Apr. 15.—Communist Gen. Chou En-lai announced "all-out" hostilities in Manchuria.

UNRRA estimated more than 30 million Chinese starving in 19 provinces; urged quick relief.

New First Army clashed with communist forces in Szepingkai in drive toward Changchun.

Apr. 16.—Two hours before Soviet army completed withdrawal from Changchun, Chinese Communists opened heavy attack on Manchurian capital, seizing three airfields.

Apr. 17.—Chinese Communists captured Changchun.

Apr. 18.—Gen. Marshall, accompanied by his wife, arrived in Chungking.

Apr. 22.—Chu Min-yi, puppet foreign minister, was sentenced to death; Mrs. Wang Ching-wei, widow of puppet president, was given life term for treason.

Apr. 24.—French Goodwill Mission arrived in Nanking from Peiping.

Apr. 25.—President Chiang postponed National Assembly when communists refused to nominate candidates for government posts.

Chinese Communists submitted to Gen. Marshall three proposals as conditions for signing truce.

Apr. 26.—Chinese Communist troops took over Harbin as Russians left.

Apr. 27.—Generalissimo Chiang personally took part in truce negotiations for a speedy settlement, conferred with Gen. Marshall.

Apr. 28.—Chinese Reds controlled Tsitsihar after Russian withdrawal.

Apr. 30.—UNRRA began on final 60-day engineering project to close Yellow river gap before July 1 high flood deadline.

Truce negotiations on Manchuria collapsed when President Chiang rejected latest communist demands.

May 1.—Government officially moved back to Nanking.

Herbert Hoover, President Truman's food investigator, arrived in Shanghai.

May 2.—Gen. Marshall urged Chinese Reds to hand over Changchun to government.

May 3.—Government rejected three-point Manchurian peace proposal by Gen. Marshall.

May 5.—Cease-fire team hurried to Hankow where Government-Communist battle flared.

May 6.—Delayed dispatch from Changchun indicated Chinese Reds claimed control over 70 percent of Manchuria, with local regimes established in most provinces.

May 10.—New truce in central China announced, paving way for further efforts to settle Manchurian conflict.

May 11.—Chinese Government-U. S. Army agreement for repatriation of 1,300,000 Japanese settlers from Manchuria signed in Mukden.

May 12.—Government-Communist truce concluded in Shantung.

May 13.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin resigned as chief of staff of armed forces.

May 14.—Col. R. H. Harrison, President Truman's personal representative in China, reported to UNRRA in Shanghai that Hunan situation had reached critical plight.

May 15.—Government changes: Gen. Pai Chung-hsi, assistant chief of staff, named head of new Ministry of National Defense; Chen Cheng, Minister of War, named chief of staff to replace Gen. Ho Ying-chin; Yu Ta-wei named Minister of Communications to succeed Gen. Yu Fei-peng; Peng Hsueh-pei named Minister of Information; K. C. Wu appointed Mayor of Shanghai; Wang Yun-wu named Minister of Economic Affairs to succeed Wong Wen-hao.

May 16.—Government was advised that all Russian forces had withdrawn from Manchuria except for some troops at Port Arthur and Dairen.

May 19.—Government and communist sources reported that fighting in Shantung, Hopei and Jehol was developing gradually into large-scale conflict.

Admiral Charles M. Cooke, Jr., commander of U. S. 7th Fleet, said U. S. was not planning to develop naval bases in China to compete with Soviet-controlled Port Arthur.

May 20.—Headquarters of Lieut.-Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of Government forces in Manchuria, announced capture of Szepingkai.

Hunan delegates in National Assembly reported 20-million victims in 54 of 78 famine-stricken cities in Hunan province.

May 21.—Central News Agency reported Government First Army had pushed to within 35 miles of Changchun.

May 22.—Moscow radio quoted Tass report that seven American-piloted planes had been shot down in Manchuria while bombing Chinese Communists.

Government forces were reported to have captured communist stronghold of Kungchuling and pushed to within 20 miles of Changchun.

May 23.—Government announced recapture of Changchun, held by Chinese Communists since April 18.

President Chiang left Nanking for Mukden.

U. S. Army and Marine Corps denied Moscow report on downing of American piloted planes in Manchuria.

May 26.—Government troops were reported near Harbin.

May 27.—Government and Chinese Communists resumed truce negotiations.

Government planned to complete repatriation of Japanese war prisoners and civilians before end of June.

May 29.—Spokesman declared government still insistent on establishment of Chinese sovereignty throughout Northeast Provinces.

Government troops captured Kirin east of Changchun.

May 30.—Gen. Marshall warned China was on "the verge of an even greater calamity" than World War.

New armed forces commanders appointed: Army, Ku Chu-tung; Navy, Chen Cheng, chief of staff; and Air Force, Chou Chih-jou.

May 31.—Government troops in Manchuria advanced to Sungari river defense line, 76 miles south of Harbin.

June 1.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung, director of President Chiang's headquarters for the northwest, concluded agreement in Sinkiang with representatives of Moslem Turki tribes.

June 2.—Gen. Marshall proposed new plan for stopping civil war in Manchuria through Government-Communist truce.

June 3.—Chen Kung-po, former Nanking puppet president, executed.

June 4.—President Chiang returned to Nanking from the northeast.

Communists claimed recapture of Anshan and Yingkow in Manchuria.

June 5.—President Chiang agreed with Gen. Marshall to halt government offensive for ten days for negotiation with Chinese Communists. Advance section of Sino-American Executive Headquarters in Peiping was ordered to proceed to Changchun to prepare for "carrying out whatever agreements may be reached for the cessation of hostilities" in Manchuria.

June 6.—President Chiang ordered national troops in Manchuria to halt "all advances, attacks, and pursuits" during 15-day armistic, as substitute for full truce.

June 8.—Chinese minority parties sought to prolong Manchuria truce with communists, which was to end June 22.

Spokesman of Government Field Headquarters charged communist troops violated 15-day truce agreement within three hours after it came into effect.

June 10.—Moscow radio broadcast Tass dispatch from Shanghai charging U. S. naval and marine units had been "authorized to render every possible assistance to Chinese Government troops operating against communist troops in Manchuria."

June 11.—T. F. Tsiang, CNRRA head, announced government appropriation of CNC$432-million, 50 percent of nation's revenue, for CNRRA operation in 1946.

Semi-official report indicated Communist Gen. Chou En-lai demanded communist participation in government as price for peace.

June 12.—Sinkiang provincial government ordered release of more than 300 political prisoners arrested in connection with Ining incident.

June 14.—President Truman told Congress that China had received $602,045,000 in lend-lease aid from U. S. since V-J Day and that the assistance was to continue.

June 16.—Chinese Communist spokesman announced signing of new truce, an implementation agreement described as a "step toward a permanent cease-fire in Manchuria."

June 17.—Edwin W. Pauley's reparations mission reported Manchurian industry had been crippled by Soviet removal of vital machinery. Soviet government did not "make exactly a gesture of good-will toward China or other Allied nations entitled to reparations from Japan."

June 18.—Executive Yuan promulgated law giving Sinkiang people voice in administration of province under Urumchi agreement.

June 19.—U. S. Acting Secretary of State Dean Acheson declared reorganization of Chinese Army with help of 1,000 U. S. Army-Navy experts proposed by Gen. Marshall would have far-reaching results in rehabilitation of China.

June 21.—President Chiang extended 15-day truce until June 30 to give Government-Communist negotiators more time to settle differences.

June 22.—Mao Tse-tung demanded U. S. to cease all military aid to Chinese

Government and promptly withdraw U. S. forces from China.

June 25.—U. S. State Department indicated U. S. intended to continue policy of military aid to China at least as long as Japanese troops remained there.

June 26.—American representatives on cease-fire teams in Manchuria were given added power under Government-Communist agreement.

V. K. Wellington Koo was appointed Ambassador to U. S.

June 29.—U. S. State Department issued notice that U. S. guns would go to China if and when its Government and communist armies were merged into a single Chinese Army.

June 30.—Government announced that the twice-extended truce in Manchuria was to be prolonged indefinitely.

July 3.—The Supreme National Defense Council voted to convoke the National Assembly on November 12, 1946, to adopt a constitution.

July 9.—UNRRA Director-General La Guardia announced shipments of supplies other than emergency food to China were suspended until UNRRA goods had been cleared out of coastal ports. President Truman nominated Dr. J. Leighton Stuart U. S. Ambassador to China.

July 11.—Government spokesman said CNRRA had standing order to distribute its relief supplies fairly without regard to politics.

July 12.—T. F. Tsiang, CNRRA director, said poor transportation, not politics, handicapped flow of food to China's starving millions.

July 13.—Seven U. S. Marines guarding munition dumps kidnapped near Chinwangtao by Chinese Communists.

U. S. Army headquarters in Shanghai announced repatriation of Japanese completed in China proper.

July 16.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced appointment of Cheng Tien-hsi as Ambassador to Great Britain to succeed V. K. Wellington Koo.

July 20.—Chinese Government asked UNRRA to resume relief shipments to China, blamed UNRRA itself for delays in the distribution of supplies.

July 21.—Government troops launched all-out campaign to break communist grip on north China railroads.

July 23.—Edwin Pauley reported that Soviet removal of key machinery in Manchuria had "incapacitated" more than US$2-billion worth of industry there.

July 29.—Four U. S. Marines killed and 16 seriously injured when truck convoy was ambushed by Chinese Communists 25 miles southeast of Peiping. Four more died after arrival in Peiping.

Aug. 2.—Communist spokesman declared Yenan would appeal for international volunteer army to fight government forces if present hostilities should become all-out civil war.

Aug. 5.—U. S. State Department spokesman said U. S. Government had no intention of withdrawing marines now stationed in China.

Aug. 9.—A new truce until August 26 was announced. The Executive Headquarters ordered communist and government troops in Hupeh, Honan and Shansi provinces to cease fire and withdraw ten miles from their respective positions.

Aug. 10.—Gen. Marshall and Dr. Stuart, new U. S. Ambassador, declared it "appears impossible" for government and communists to reach settlement on different issues.

U. S. Marine Corps Headquarters announced second clash between marines and Chinese Reds had taken place 60 miles northeast of Tientsin.

Aug. 14.—President Chiang, on first anniversary of Japanese surrender, promised to end one-party rule without further delay.

Aug. 15.—Chinese Communists attacked Gen. Marshall, blaming him for failure to cease hostilities in China.

Aug. 16.—Henry Pu Yi, puppet ruler of "Manchukuo," testified in Tokyo trial.

Aug. 18.—Government announced new foreign exchange rate of CNC$3,350 to US$1.

Aug. 19.—Yenan ordered mobilization of all forces for full-scale civil war against Central Government "to shatter Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's offensive."

Aug. 20.—Gen. Chou En-lai, chief communist negotiator, rejected President Chiang's invitation to submit names of communist candidates for participation in a reorganized government.

Aug. 21.—Communists announced establishment of government in Manchuria under provisional administration of 86 elected delegates.

Aug. 23.—Gen. Marshall flew to Kuling to discuss with President Chiang on the creation of an interim State Council to be composed of representatives of all parties.

Aug. 29.—President Chiang approved creation of committee of five, to be headed by U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart, to pave the way for coalition government.

Aug. 31.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, announced conclusion of surplus property negotiations with U. S. Government which would enable China to get more than US$800-million worth of U. S. surplus material in China and western Pacific.

Sept. 1.—Chou En-lai denounced surplus property deal between Chinese and U. S. governments and demanded United States to "suspend assistance to the Kuomintang."

Sept. 4.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh disclosed China would ask a 40 per cent share in the total Japanese reparations pool.

Sept. 6.—Government forces launched two-pronged drive toward Harbin, Manchuria's largest industrial center.

Sept. 8.—Chou En-lai denied Chinese Communist party had "any connection with Moscow," declaring Yenan would not seek any aid from Russia.

Sept. 9.—Chinese Embassy in Washington disclosed Chinese Government had permitted foreign vessels to call at Nanking, Wuhu, Kiukiang and Hankow within a specified period of time.

Sept. 12.—Communists proposed immediate meetings of the Military Sub-committee to work out quick truce to end civil strife.

Sept. 16.—Chou En-lai left Nanking for Shanghai, ending hopes for a negotiated peace through U. S. Ambassador Stuart's proposed five-man committee.

Sept. 15.—Government forces drove deep wedges between Yenan and Kalgan.

Sept. 17.—Government forces captured Huaiyin, main communist base in northern Kiansu.

Sept. 18.—Government forces entered Tatung, lifting 45-day communist siege.

Sept. 23.—Andrei Gromyko, Soviet delegate to UN Security Council, said that the presence of U. S. Marines in China might lead to international friction.

Sept. 24.—Premier Joseph Stalin asserted that earliest withdrawal of U. S. armed forces in China would be vital to future peace.

Lieu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, declared in Nanking that American Marines were in China to assist in the repatriation of Japanese nationals and their presence was with the sanction of the Chinese Government.

Sept. 28.—Communist forces under Gen. Lin Piao launched surprise offensive in Manchuria, directing an attack against Nungan, railway town 35 miles north of Changchun.

Sept. 30.—Three powerful Government columns from Hopei, Jehol and Suiyuan converged on Kalgan, principal communist military center in north China.

Chinese Communist party notified the government of its refusal to attend National Assembly scheduled for Nov. 12.

Oct. 4.—Communist forces attacked Paoting, capital of Hopei province.

Oct. 6.—President Chiang accepted proposal of Gen. Marshall and Ambassador Stuart for a 10-day truce to pave way for resumption of peace talks.

Oct. 8.—Gen. Marshall and Ambassador Stuart declared in a joint statement that Yenan had refused to agree to a 10-day truce on the Kalgan drive and Gen. Chou En-lai had refused to return from Shanghai to resume peace negotiations.

Oct. 9.—British Trade Mission, headed by Sir Leslie Boyce, arrived in China.

Oct. 10.—President Chiang urged national unity in Double Tenth message to the Chinese people, emphasizing that "basic conditions for national reconstruction are national unification and social stability."

Oct. 11.—Ministry of National Defense announced the capture of Kalgan by Gen. Fu Tso-yi's troops after a year-long communist occupation.

Oct. 12.—Dr. Sun Fo, president of Legislative Yuan, urged resumption of peace parleys and reorganization of government in accordance with PCC resolutions. He requested all parties to submit immediately names of their delegates to the National Assembly.

Chinese Communists appealed to UN for assistance in effecting withdrawal of U. S. troops from China.

Oct. 15.—Gen. Fu Tso-yi, conqueror of Kalgan, was appointed concurrently governor of Chahar province.

Troops from Outer Mongolia were reported to have invaded northern Manchuria and entered Hulun, capital of Hsingan province.

Oct. 16.—President Chiang set forth eight conditions, declaring that should the communists agree to the terms, the government would issue nation-wide cease-fire order.

Third party leaders approved in principle government's latest proposal.

Oct. 18.—Yenan issued statement through central committee saying communists would reject the government's latest peace offer unless the government agreed to restore military *status quo* of Jan. 13 and observed PCC resolutions.

Oct. 22.—Gen. Chou En-lai and third parties delegates returned to Nanking. Preliminary peace discussions took place.

President and Madame Chiang left for Taiwan to attend first anniversary of restoration of the island to China.

Oct. 26.—Dr. Sun Fo revealed six points of conflict remained to be thrashed out

before peace negotiations could officially begin.

Oct. 29.—President Chiang exhorted third party members to persevere in their peace efforts.

Oct. 30.—President Chiang offered to issue cease-fire order provided the communists would submit list of delegates to National Assembly.

Oct. 31.—Nationwide celebration marked President Chiang's 60th birthday.

Nov. 4.—U. S. and China signed five-year treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation.

Nov. 5.—Government forces lifted Paoting siege.

Nov. 8.—President Chiang instructed government troops throughout country, beginning noon Nov. 11, to cease fire and remain at their respective positions.

Nov. 9.—William Henry Donald, formerly adviser to President Chiang, died in Shanghai.

Nov. 11.—Communist spokesman Wang Ping-nan declared communist delegation would leave Nanking if government convened National Assembly as scheduled on Nov. 12.

Government decided to postpone National Assembly for three days in last minute effort to find basis for peace with communists.

Nov. 15.—National Assembly officially convened. President Chiang declared in inaugural speech end of Kuomintang tutelage.

Nov. 16.—Large communist forces attacked Langfang on Peiping-Tientsin railway.

Nov. 17.—T. V. Soong announced revised provisional foreign trade regulations giving priority to imports.

Nov. 20.—Supreme National Defense Council decided to reorganize Executive Yuan to include 18 ministries and commissions and to increase members of State Council to 40.

Nov. 21.—National Assembly elected 46 members of 55-man presidium from 178 candidates, reserving nine seats for Communist party and Democratic League.

Nov. 27.—President Chiang introduced draft constitution to National Assembly.

Dec. 2.—Dr. Sun Fo, president of Legislative Yuan, declared "the government is ready at all times to resume negotiations with Communists."

Dec. 6.—Yenan demanded dissolution of National Assembly and restoration of military positions to status of Jan. 13 as conditions for resumption of peace talks.

Dec. 9.—Government announced it was considering sending representatives to Yenan to reopen peace negotiations with communists.

Dec. 13.—Edwin W. Pauley, U. S. reparations representative, in report to President Truman, declared Manchuria's industrial plants had suffered appalling damages totalling US$858-million.

Dec. 14.—Chou En-lai accused President Chiang of cooperating with Germany and Italy in early days of Sino-Japanese War and U. S. of harboring imperialistic designs of world domination.

Dec. 16.—Steering Committee of National Assembly, at the request of President Chiang, killed all constitutional amendments proposed by various assembly committees, upheld draft constitution drawn in January by all-party Political Consultation Conference.

Dec. 18.—President Truman, in 3,500 word statement of U. S. policy in China, reiterated that civil war threatening world peace must be ended; adding that U. S. would continue to respect China's sovereignty and help Chinese toward recovery of peace and economy.

Dec. 23.—U. S. State Department announced signing of Chinese-American civil aviation agreement under which airlines of one nation would receive reciprocal landing and transit rights in territory of the other.

Dec. 25.—National Assembly, 41 days after opening session, completed new constitution for China. Assembly rushed through third and final reading of the new national charter and approved it by almost unanimous vote.

Dec. 28.—Crash of three airliners caused by heavy fog near Shanghai, killed 77 persons and seriously injured 22 others.

Dec. 30.—More than 6,000 Peiping university students in street demonstration demanding withdrawal of U. S. Marines because of alleged rape of Chinese co-ed by two U. S. marines on Christmas eve.

Dec. 31.—President Chiang broadcast reiterated policy of continuing attempts to settle disputes with communists through political means.

1947

Jan. 1.—In Shanghai 5,000 university students staged demonstration in protest against alleged Peiping rape case.

Jan. 3.—Marching student demonstrators in Nanking protested alleged Peiping rape case. Students presented list of demands to U. S. Ambassador Stuart.

Jan. 4.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, ordered all local governments and schools to halt anti-American student demonstrations.

Jan. 5.—Tung Pi-wu, chief communist delegate, charged that the proposed closing of breaches in Yellow river dike, near Kaifeng, threatened vast stretches of communist-controlled territory.

Jan. 6.—White House announced Gen. George C. Marshall had been summoned to Washington to report on situation in China.

U. S. State Department announced it had officially requested Soviet Union to turn over control of Dairen to China immediately.

Jan. 7.—Gen. Marshall was appointed American Secretary of State.

Jan. 8.—Gen. Marshall left Nanking by plane for U. S.

Jan. 9.—Information Minister Peng Hsueh-pei declared in formal statement government's willingness to discuss with communists concrete plans for cessation of hostilities and government reorganization.

Jan. 16.—Government named Gen. Chang Chih-chung, governor of Sinkiang province, to visit Yenan in attempt to renew peace negotiations with communists.

Jan. 18.—Yenan reply rejecting government proposal for new parleys was conveyed to Ambassador Stuart by communists in Nanking.

Jan. 21.—Government announced its readiness to resume peace talks with communists on basis of four points: cessation of hostilities with troops remaining at their present positions, army reorganization, reopening of communications and a "just and equitable solution of problem of regional administration."

Jan. 25.—Charging that by signing the Sino-American Commercial Treaty "the government had sold out the territorial sovereignty of the entire country and the right to existence of the Chinese nation," the communists proclaimed November 4, the day of the signing of the treaty, "National Humiliation Day."

Jan. 29.—U. S. State Department announced abandonment of U. S. effort to mediate between Chinese Government and communists. The decision involved ending of U. S. connection with Committee of Three, Executive Headquarters in Peiping, and withdrawal of all U. S. forces from China.

Soviet newspaper Izvestia assailed Edwin W. Pauley's report on Soviet looting in Manchuria as "slanderous."

Jan. 30.—Wang Ping-nan, communist spokesman, announced Yenan's decision to impose its political demands on government by force of arms and continued harassment of communications.

Feb. 1.—Six thousand Communists cut Peiping-Tientsin railway as they opened new assault 25 miles southeast of Peiping.

Feb. 2.—Government forces recaptured Tancheng, 28 miles south of communist New 4th Army Headquarters at Lini in Shantung.

Feb. 4.—President Chiang made second flight in three days to Chengchow.

Feb. 5.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, announced subsidy plan of granting 100 percent bonus to exporters as means of lending immediate stimulus to China's export trade.

Feb. 6.—U. S. branch of Executive Headquarters formally closed down.

Feb. 11.—President Chiang ordered drastic measures to break black market and halt inflation. Open market exchange rate closed at CNC$17,500 to one US dollar.

Feb. 15.—Government forces captured Lini, communist New 4th Army Headquarters in Shantung.

Feb. 16.—All private transactions in gold and foreign currency were banned.

Feb. 18.—Government asked permission of UNRRA to sell US$200,000 worth of agricultural and industrial goods earmarked for China to buy cereals, grains and cotton to be sold without restriction on open market.

Feb. 20.—T. V. Soong and Maj.-Gen. Lowell W. Rooks, Director-General of UNRRA, denied report that China sought permission to sell UNRRA goods on black market.

Feb. 21.—Twenty communists including Gen. Yeh Chien-yin, communist representative at Executive Headquarters, left Peiping for Yenan.

Feb. 22.—Government received note from U. S., Great Britain and France, declaring agenda of next month's conference of Big Four Foreign Ministers at Moscow would not go beyond questions of German and Austrian peace treaties without China's consent.

Feb. 23.—Communists resumed offensive along Sungari river.

Feb. 28.—Seventy thousand communists drove south from positions above Sungari river to within eight miles of Changchun.

Rioting broke out in Taipeh, capital of Taiwan, following a clash between police enforcing tobacco monopoly and crowd of several hundred people.

Mar. 1.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, resigned.

Supreme National Defense Council named President Chiang concurrently president of Executive Yuan.

Government broadened its legislative, supervisory and deliberate branches and

issued mandate appointing 81 third party representatives to Legislative Yuan, Control Yuan and People's Political Council.

U. S. War Department reported two American army officers were seized by communists in Manchuria.

Tsuyee Pei resigned as governor of Central Bank of China and Chang Kia-ngau was appointed as his successor.

Mar. 4.—President Chiang announced abolition of Supreme Economic Council and creation of National Economic Council under his chairmanship.

Mar. 10.—Rioting broke out anew in Taiwan.

Soviet Foreign Minister Molotov proposed addition of Chinese problem on agenda of Big Four Foreign Ministers Conference.

Mar. 12.—Liu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, declared "China will not tolerate her internal affairs being discussed by Moscow conference with or without China's participation."

American liaison group in Yenan returned to Nanking.

Mar. 15.—Yellow river dike breach at Hwayuankow was closed.

Mar. 16.—National demonstrations were held against foreign intervention in Chinese affairs.

Mar. 19.—Government announced capture of Yenan.

Mar. 22.—Kuomintang CEC convened on March 15, decided to recall and "severely punish" Chen Yi, governor of Taiwan province.

Mar. 24.—Kuomintang CEC decided to abolish Supreme National Defense Council and create vice-presidency after government reorganizations.

Mar. 26.—Organic law of National Government was revised by Legislative Yuan.

Mar. 30.—Legislative Yuan passed election laws.

Apr. 1.—Communists launched new offensive in Honan, aiming at capture of Sinsiang.

U. S. Navy authorities in China announced that 5,000 Marines would be withdrawn from China to Guam.

Gen. Pai Chung-hsi, Minister of National Defense, issued statement on Taiwan suggesting that the Taiwan Chief Administrator's Office be changed into a provincial government.

Apr. 2.—Government forces captured Taian, major communist base on Tsientsin-Pukow railway.

Apr. 5.—Communists killed five U. S. marines and wounded 16 others in raid on marine ammunition dump near Tangku.

Apr. 7.—Russia charged that U. S. had failed to withdraw its troops from China.

Apr. 8.—Government published rules concerning sale of state-operated businesses to individuals.

Apr. 9.—China supported American-proposed principle of advance drawing of part of available assets in Japan for reparations.

Apr. 10.—Government decided to distribute U. S. surplus ships secured by China among privately-operated shipping companies.

Apr. 14.—Chinese Government announced that it reserved rights on treaty with Germany.

Apr. 16.—Government announced that henceforth all foreign aircraft flying over country must obtain permission from China.

China suggested that consultations be held among U. S., Britain, U.S.S.R. and China on question of Korea.

Apr. 17.—American Embassy in China denied that Major Robert Riggs and Captain John Colling, assistant military attaches captured by communists, were reconnoitering communist military positions in Manchuria.

Heavy fighting raged near Shihchiachwang, railway town in western Hopei.

Apr. 18.—Government appointed Gen. Chang Chun president of Executive Yuan and named new state councillors. Dr. Sun Fo was chosen vice-president of National Government.

Apr. 19.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced conclusion of new Sino-Philippine treaty of amity.

Gen. Shang Chen was appointed Chinese representative on Allied Council in Japan.

Apr. 21.—52 barges loaded with UNRRA relief goods left Tientsin for communist territory.

Apr. 22.—Wei Tao-ming, former Chinese Ambassador to U. S., was appointed governor of Taiwan province.

Apr. 23.—Newly formed multi-party State Council met for first time and members of new Executive Yuan were announced.

Government announced dispatching of survey party to Dairen and Port Arthur.

Apr. 24.—Communist forces on Shantung peninsula were ferried to Dairen to obstruct government occupation of port.

Apr. 26.—President Truman ordered transfer of unspecified number of surplus ships to China.

Government forces captured Mengyin in Shantung.

Apr. 29.—Twelve Taiwanese were given high position in new provincial administration. Nepalese Goodwill Mission arrived in Shanghai.

Apr. 30.—Taian fell to the communists again.

May 1.—Premier Chang Chun, reporting on administrative policies at Legislative Yuan, reiterated government's willingness to settle internal strife through political means.

Government announced that foreigners traveling in China would no longer need internal visa.

May 2.—U. S. Secretary of State Marshall announced China had agreed to begin talks on settling its outstanding war accounts with U. S.

May 5.—Soviet Ambassador Petrov conveyed Russian reply to Chinese Government's note regarding procedure on taking over Dairen and Port Arthur.

May 6.—Government troops recaptured Taian.

May 7.—Admiral Charles M. Cooke, Commander of U. S. 7th Fleet, announced withdrawal of U. S. Marines in Peiping and Tsientsin areas would be completed before July 1.

May 8.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui announced that issuance of national currency notes up to the end of April totalled about CNC$6,000-billion.

May 9.—Anyang, 70 miles north of Kaifeng in Honan, beseiged by communists.

May 10.—Government troops captured Laiwu, southeast of Tsinan.

May 18.—Chen Chi-tien, secretary-general of Young China party, was appointed minister of economic affairs.

May 19.—Mai Ssu Wu Teh, Kuomintang CEC member from Sinkiang, succeeded Gen. Chang Chih-chung as governor of Sinkiang.

May 26.—Third Plenary Session of 4th PPC, convened on May 20, resolved to invite its communist members to attend session.

May 31.—PPC adopted resolution asking government to initiate negotiations with U. S. for loans to be used exclusively for national rehabilitation.

June 3.—Chinese mission arrived in Port Arthur to investigate conditions in Port Arthur and Dairen.

June 5.—Outer Mongolian cavalry battalion, aided by four planes with Soviet insignia, attacked Chinese defense forces at Peitashan, northeast of Kitai in eastern Sinkiang.

June 11.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China had lodged protest with Soviet and Outer Mongolian governments on invasion of Sinkiang.

June 12.—Communists rejected peace proposals of PPC.

Peitashan was recaptured from Outer Mongolian troops.

U.N. Economic Commission for Asia and Far East met in Shanghai.

CNAC airliner completing first round trip between China and U. S. returned to Shanghai.

June 18.—Communist troops in Szepingkai, north of Mukden, used poison gas against government forces.

June 20.—Vice-president Sun Fo declared immediate Anglo-American aid to China would be necessary if Manchuria was to be saved. Communist troops occupied Tsanghsien on Tientsin-Pukow railway.

June 22.—Outer Mongolian troops renewed attacks on Chinese positions at Peitashan in Sinkiang province.

Heavy fighting continued at Szepingkai, north of Mukden.

June 25.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued communique on Soviet Union's repeated attempts to block China's entry into Dairen and Port Arthur.

Government forces recaptured Kungchuling, north of Szepingkai.

June 27.—American State Department announced U. S. would sell 130-million rounds of small-arms ammunition to China at one-tenth of original cost.

Outer Mongolia was reported to have replied on June 22 to China's protest regarding Peitashan incident, putting blame on China.

July 1.—Communist siege of Szepingkai, strategic railway hub north of Mukden, was lifted.

July 3.—Communist troops were reported to have crossed Yellow river in Shantung from north bank.

July 7.—Gen. Chen Cheng, chief of general staff, placed total strength of communist forces at more than 1,170,000 men including some 100,000 Japanese prisoners of war.

July 8.—The Executive Yuan passed emergency measures to cope with flood in Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien provinces.

July 9.—Outer Mongolian invaders continued attacks on Peitashan, Sinkiang.

July 10.—Chengteh, capital of Jehol, was recaptured.

July 11.—China lodged fresh protests with Outer Mongolia. Russia issued communique through Tass denying China's right to take over Dairen and Port Arthur.

July 12.—President Truman appointed Lieut.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer head of a fact-finding mission to China and Korea.

July 17.—The Ministry of Interior announced China's population in first half of 1947 at 461,006,285.

Gen. Sun Li-jen was appointed deputy-commander of Chinese Ground Forces.

July 18.—Government adopted plans to mobilize material and manpower to suppress the communist rebellion.

July 22.—Wedemeyer mission arrived in Nanking.

July 23.—T. F. Tsiang, former CNRRA director, was appointed acting Chinese delegate to U.N. Security Council.

July 25.—PPC standing committee approved Chinese participation in preliminary Japanese peace conference but proposed China must retain veto power.

July 28.—China turned down Outer Mongolia's bid for U.N. membership.

July 30.—UNRRA announced in Washington suspension of shipments to both government and communist areas in north China.

Aug. 1.—State Council approved sending a trade mission to Japan.

Aug. 7.—President Chiang flew to Yenan, former communist capital, to confer on strengthening government's defenses in the northwest.

Aug. 11.—Government forces captured Yencheng and Chuyeh in southwestern Shantung.

Aug. 12.—Government rejected UNRRA request to guarantee safety of personnel engaged in delivering relief supplies to communist-held areas.

Aug. 13.—Premier Chang Chun expressed welcome of foreign investment in China's industrial and manufacturing enterprises.

Aug. 14.—Government forces lifted communist siege of Yulin in northern Shensi.

Aug. 15.—U. S. turned down Soviet proposal that Japanese peace treaty be written by governments of United States, Soviet Union, Great Britain and China only.

Aug. 16.—Open animosity between Moslems loyal to Central Government and local tribes opposed to Chinese authority was reported to have developed in Sinkiang province.

Aug. 17.—Government announced new foreign exchange policy permitting dealings in foreign exchange by importers and exporters at open market rate; foreign exchange at official rate only for essential imports.

Government forces launched new three-pronged attack to clear communist forces from Tsinan-Tsingtao railway.

Aug. 20.—Executive Yuan ordered closing of Soviet-controlled port of Dairen to all foreign shipping.

Aug. 21.—The U. S. State Department protested to USSR over continued Soviet occupation of Dairen and procrastination in making port available to world shipping.

Aug. 24.—Concluding his study of China situation, Gen. Wedemeyer issued statement stressing need for "drastic far-reaching political and economic reforms" in Chinese Government.

Aug. 28.—Communist forces under Liu Po-cheng, driven from western Shantung province, cut a wide swath through Honan-Anhwei border area to within 150 miles north of Hankow.

Aug. 31.—Gen. Chen Cheng, chief of General Staff, flew to Mukden to take over government command in Manchuria.

Sept. 2.—Premier Chang Chun declared in an interview that China would not alter her domestic or foreign policy as result of Gen. Wedemeyer's mission.

Sept. 4.—National Economic Council adopted plan under which all Chinese nationals holding private assets abroad would be required to register such assets with Central Bank or be subject to a maximum penalty of five years' imprisonment.

Sept. 5.—Executive Yuan announced new program for reduction of government payroll, conservation of food, cloth and gasoline, stricter rationing of newsprint and other measures to promote austerity and increase government efficiency.

Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh disclosed China had recommended retaining of veto power by Big Four in working out Japanese peace settlement.

Sept. 6.—Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, former director of the Generalissimo's Northeast Headquarters, revealed government capture of Russian arms from Korean units fighting with Chinese Communists.

Sept. 7.—San Min Chu I Youth Corps, organized in 1938, was due for dissolution before end of month. Its 400,000 members would be absorbed into Kuomintang.

Sept. 10.—Government reached agreement with U. S. on main principles governing use of China's share of US$350-million U. S. relief appropriation for needy foreign countries.

Sept. 13.—T. V. Soong was appointed governor of Kwangtung.

Sept. 14.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs published text of a statement handed to Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer on Aug. 16 relating Chinese Government's work and policy before and after the war.

Communist troops were reported roaming on north bank of Yangtze river about fifty miles from Nanking. Government imposed curfew on Nanking suburbs and river traffic.

Sept. 16.—Legislative Yuan ratified air pact with Britain and peace treaty with Italy.

Sept. 19.—Chang Chun, president of Executive Yuan, started inspection tour of north China.

Sept. 23.—Resident Committee of PPC adopted 15-point recommendation on Japanese peace treaty to be submitted to government for deliberation.

Sept. 24.—Government troops tightened cordon around communist forces on Honan-Hupeh-Anhwei border.

Sept. 26.—State Council postponed general election for one month because of delay in preparations in some localities.

Oct. 1.—Government troops captured Chefoo.

Hollington K. Tong, director of Government Information Office, condemned Democratic League members for taking part in communist activities.

Oct. 3.—Ministry of Justice reported 22,661 treason cases had been tried.

Oct. 4.—President and Madame Chiang arrived in Peiping.

Oct. 5.—Government naval units captured Weihaiwei.

Oct. 7.—Legislative Yuan ratified Chinese-Canadian agreement on a $6-million (Canadian dollars) loan to China.

Oct. 9.—British Parliamentary Goodwill Mission arrived in Nanking.

Oct. 13.—William C. Bullitt, former U. S. Ambassador to Russia, in article in *Life* magazine, advocated immediate U. S. aid to China.

Oct. 17.—China donated 2-million c.c. of cholera serum to Egypt and Arabia.

Oct. 20.—Premier Chang Chun, addressing PPC Resident Committee, declared the Liuchius should be returned to China; disclosing only 9.2 percent of Manchuria's total territory and 29.9 percent of Manchuria's total population were under government control.

Oct. 22.—Information Director Hollington K. Tong declared government had no intention of reviving press censorship.

President Chiang returned to Nanking after inspection trip to Kiaotung peninsula.

Oct. 27.—Government outlawed Democratic League on charges of complicity with Chinese Communists.

China signed agreement on distribution of US$30-million post-UNRRA aid.

Yellow River Conservancy Engineering Administration announced that work to rebuild dikes along lower section of the river could not be completed because of communist obstruction.

Oct. 29.—Executive Yuan endorsed Reparations Commission's plan to allot one-fourth of first instalment of Japanese reparations to civilian enterprises, three-fourths to government organizations.

Nov. 1.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, referring to China's claims on Japanese reparations, said "China is entitled to a percentage commensurate with the suffering and losses of her people" during the war.

Nov. 5.—Chang Lan, leader of Democratic League, announced dissolution of league.

Government troops cleared north banks of Yangtze river in central China of communists.

Nov. 10.—Fighting became intensified in outer perimeter of Shihchiachwang in Hopei.

Nov. 13.—Program for Chinese-American agricultural cooperation was approved by Executive Yuan.

Nov. 14.—The 15-day communist siege of Yulin in north Shensi was lifted.

Nov. 15.—Legislative Yuan ratified Sino-American agreement providing relief for China.

Nov. 17.—Chinese Government submitted formal proposals to U. S., Britain and Soviet Union for holding preliminary peace conference on Japan.

Nov. 21.—First general election in China was held.

Nov. 26.—U. S. Embassy spokesman in Nanking denied reports that Washington Congressional committee had suggested Tsingtao be granted to U. S. as a naval base.

Dec. 1.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued statement urging mutually satisfactory solution to question of China-Burma boundary demarcation through proper diplomatic channels in accordance with treaty provisions and international law.

Yin Ju-ken, once head of a puppet "state" east of Peiping, was executed in Nanking.

Dec. 2.—Executive Yuan approved immediate establishment of control offices in Shanghai, Tientsin, Canton and Hankow to prevent banks and business organizations from engaging in speculation and other illegal operations.

Dec. 3.—All government forces in five northern provinces of Shansi, Hopei, Jehol, Suiyuan and Chahar were placed under unified command of Gen. Fu Tso-yi.

Dec. 5.—Preliminary agreement was reached between Chinese Government and liaison representative of United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, regarding half of US$3,500,000 allocated to China for buying cotton and dyes in U. S.

Dec. 7.—George Yeh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, reiterated China's stand in note to Russia on Dec. 5 concerning composition and voting procedure of preliminary Japanese peace conference.

Dec. 8.—China and U. S. reached agreement regarding transfer of U. S. vessels to China and training of Chinese naval personnel.

Dec. 10.—Communist attempts to set up new base in Tapiehshan area were frustrated by government forces in central China.

Dec. 16.—Wong Wen-hao, chairman of National Resources Commission, reported YVA plan was temporarily suspended, not abandoned, because of financial difficulties.

Dec. 22.—Government recalled Gen. Feng Yu-hsiang, who was sent to U. S. to study water conservancy in 1946.

Dec. 25.—National Assembly was postponed owing to delay of some local electoral offices in filing election returns and failure of others to hold election as scheduled.

Government promulgated procedural rules for concluding Kuomintang political tutelage in mandate.

Dec. 26.—Government announced decision to hold National Assembly on March 29 for election of China's new President and Vice-President.

China exchanged notes with U. S., Britain, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, officially abolishing legation quarters in Peiping.

Dec. 29.—Executive Yuan, in 16-point new ruling, restricted all bank loans and remittances, banned black market operations by all banking organizations and forbade acceptance by banks of gold and foreign currencies as securities or deposits.

Government garrison at Mukden fought with communists who had infiltrated into city's western suburbs.

1948

Jan. 3.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui reported to PPC Resident Committee that China's national budget amounted to CNC$9,300-billion.

Jan. 6.—U. S. challenged USSR in Allied Control Council for Japan in Tokyo on whether Japanese army equipment captured in Manchuria by the Soviet Union had been turned over to Chinese Communists.

Jan. 7.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman announced sending a Chinese technical mission to U. S. for consultation on China-aid program.

Jan. 8.—Feng Yu-hsiang was expelled from Kuomintang.

Jan. 12.—State Council made Peiping China's third auxiliary capital, the other two being Sian and Chungking.

Jan. 13.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, lodged strong verbal protest to British Ambassador Sir Ralph Stevenson in Nanking against use of armed police force by Hongkong government in evicting Chinese residents in Kowloon city.

Jan. 14.—Tsuyee Pei, former governor of Central Bank of China, left Shanghai as head of Chinese technical mission for Washington to discuss China-aid program.

Jan. 17.—Anti - British demonstrations broke out in Canton and Shanghai.

Jan. 19.—New unified command was created in northeast under Gen. Wei Li-huang.

Jan. 21.—General election of members of Legislative Yuan, China's highest law-making body, was started.

China formally asked British to compensate Chinese residents evicted from Kowloon city.

Jan. 26.—Communist forces renewed attacks in Manchuria after two-week lull and captured Sinlitun, rail junction west of Mukden.

Jan. 28.—Premier Chang Chun announced ten-point government program of "self-help," calling for financial and economic reform measures "to secure the maximum benefit from external aid."

Jan. 29.—Shanghai students, angered by arrests of demonstrators against British eviction of residents in Kowloon, clashed with police.

Feb. 3.—British consulate in Mukden was closed. Six members of the closed American consulate left Mukden for Peiping.

Feb. 7.—Liaoyang, south of Mukden, fell to communists after five days of fighting.

Feb. 9.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, in report to State Council on Sino-British negotiations concerning Kowloon incident, reiterated China's determination to assert her sovereignty over Kowloon city.

Feb. 16.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that China and Australia had agreed to raise status of their respective diplomatic missions from legation to embassy.

Feb. 18.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman said China would not recognize any government setup in Korea not in accordance with UN decision or Moscow agreement.

President Truman sent message to Congress requesting US$570-million for aid to China until June 30, 1949, of which US$510-million would be utilized for food and relief and US$60-million for reconstruction.

Feb. 19.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart in Nanking issued "personal message to the people of China" saying that U. S. aid alone would not be enough to bring political stability and economic recovery to China.

Feb. 20.—Soviet Union announced it considered Russo-Chinese Non-Aggression Pact of 1937 automatically extended to 1950 since period for notice of abrogation had passed.

Feb. 21.—U.P. report quoted Ambassador Stuart as saying that best possible solution of China's internal problems would be resumption of Government-Communist peace talks.

Communists captured Anshan, south of Mukden.

Feb. 22.—Ambassador Stuart, in interview with *Central News,* denied earlier statement to *United Press.*

Feb. 27.—Communist forces besieged Yingkow.

China and Italy concluded treaty of amity, replacing all pre-war treaties between the two countries.

Feb. 28.—Government forces withdrew from Kaiyuan, northwest of Mukden.

Feb. 29.—President Chiang assured Manchurian leaders of government's decision to hold northwest.

Mar. 1.—Vice-President Sun Fo, at press conference in Taiwan, charged a U. S. information official with spreading reports of dissension among people of Taiwan against China.

Mar. 3.—Treason charge was filed in Hopei High Court in Peiping against Henry Pu-yi, puppet emperor of "Manchukuo," now in Russian custody.

Mar. 4.—Government reinforcements striking north from Great Wall reached point 30 miles west of Mukden to effect opening of western Liaoning corridor.

Mar. 7.—Government forces breached siege of Szepingkai, between Chungchun and Mukden; communists claimed to have defeated government army in major battle at Ichuan, southeast of Yenan in Shensi province.

Mar. 10.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with Soviet Embassy in Nanking concerning shooting of air transport plane by two fighter planes bearing Soviet insignia over Gulf of Chili, about 120 miles north of Tientsin, on March 8.

Mar. 11.—Communist troops broke into Loyang.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman announced China's reply to Outer Mongolian Government's protest of "invasion" of latter's territory by Chinese troops.

Mar. 15.—Government admitted loss of Kirin and Szepingkai in Manchuria.

Mar. 18.—Government forces recaptured Loyang.

Mar. 24.—Fuhsin and Tzechuan in Manchuria fell to communists.

Mar. 25.—Sun Fo announced his candidacy for vice-president under the new constitution.

Mar. 27.—President Chiang asked 300 Kuomintang members, who were elected to National Assembly as independents last November, to give up seats promised to minority parties.

Mar. 29.—China's First National Assembly convened with 1,629 representatives attending opening session. In opening speech President Chiang called it "epoch-making event in the history of China."

Mar. 31.—Ministry of National Defense spokesman announced decision to abandon Lungkow, Penglai and Weihaiwei in eastern Shantung.

Apr. 4.—Speaking before Kuomintang CEC Standing Committee, President Chiang declared he did not choose to run for presidency under constitution and would rather devote himself to unfinished task of suppressing Communist rebellion.

Apr. 7.—Government military spokesman confirmed fall of Loyang, Honan.

Apr. 9.—President Chiang in state-of-the-nation report to National Assembly admitted destruction of government's divisions in north China.

Apr. 14.—Reviewing China's foreign relations before National Assembly, Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh accused U.S.S.R. of having violated 1945 agreements.

Apr. 15.—1,200 National Assembly delegates jointly proposed emergency powers for President during present crisis.

Apr. 16.—President Chiang was nominated candidate for presidency by more than 2,000 delegates despite his earlier declaration that he would not seek the nation's highest post.

Apr. 18.—The National Assembly approved by two-thirds majority vote four temporary provisions in constitution, granting emergency powers to President during the period of communist suppression campaign.

Apr. 19.—Chiang Kai-shek was elected China's first President under new constitution by a vote of 2,430 out of 2,704 in the National Assembly.

Apr. 21.—The National Assembly passed resolution asking U.S.S.R. to abide by

1945 Sino-Soviet treaty and return immediately to China all machinery and materials removed from Manchuria.

Apr. 22.—Yenan fell to communists.

Apr. 24.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen led five other vice-presidential candidates in first ballot in election of China's vice-president.

Apr. 27.—Weihsien in Shantung fell to communists.

Apr. 28.—Executive Yuan approved program submitted by provincial governments to terminate landlordism before 1949 in Kwangsi and Kansu.

Apr. 29.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen was elected vice-president of China on fourth ballot.

Government forces assisted by planes trapped some 50,000 communists around Hsienyang, west of Sian, they also captured Fengsiang and Paoki.

May 1.—President Chiang, officiating at the closing ceremony of National Assembly, called it "the greatest achievement of the Chinese people since the founding of the nation."

May 5.—Premier Chang Chun and his cabinet resigned en bloc to give President Chiang a clean slate to reorganize executive branch of government.

May 8.—New Legislative Yuan session opened with two minority parties boycotting the meeting.

May 13.—Gen. Ku Chu-tung was appointed Chief of General Staff to succeed Gen. Chen Cheng.

May 14.—Gen. Hu Tsung-nan, government commander-in-chief in northwest, announced conclusion of 22-day battle on Shensi-Kansu border which resulted in a major defeat for the communists.

May 17.—Sun Fo and Chen Li-fu were elected president and vice-president, respectively, of Legislative Yuan.

May 20.—President Chiang Kai-shek and Vice-President Li Tsung-jen were inaugurated.

May 24.—Legislative Yuan approved appointment of Wong Wen-hao as premier of new constitutional government.

May 25.—New premier pledged to carry out radical and thorough reforms.

May 31.—President Chiang approved cabinet list submitted by Premier Wong Wen-hao.

Government created Central China Communist Suppression Headquarters with Gen. Pai Chung-hsi as supreme commander.

June 3.—Francis Cardinal Spellman of New York arrived in Nanking for a two-day visit.

June 4.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart warned in statement that Chinese student agitation against U. S. policy in Japan "is seriously damaging the traditional cordiality between the United States and China."

June 5.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh declared that China was demanding safeguards against resurgence of Japanese militarism, although China supported the Potsdam Declaration and took cognizance of the necessity of enabling Japan gradually to become self-supporting.

New Control Yuan session convened in Nanking.

June 7.—Roger D. Lapham, chief of China Mission of U. S. Economic Cooperation Administration, arrived in Shanghai.

June 11.—Premier Wong Wen-hao presented administrative program to the Legislative Yuan.

June 22.—President Chiang inspected Honan battle fronts as communists intensified attack on Kaifeng.

June 24.—Wang Chung-hui, elder statesman and world-famous jurist, and Chang Po-lin, noted educator, were appointed presidents of Judicial Yuan and Examination Yuan, respectively.

June 25.—Government troops recaptured Kaifeng, which fell to the communists two days ago.

June 30.—Premier Wong Wen-hao submitted budgetary bill to Legislative Yuan setting the figure of expenditure at one quadrillion Chinese dollars for second half of 1948.

July 3.—Economic Aid agreement between China and U. S. was signed in Nanking.

July 5.—Refugee students from northeast and police clashed in Peiping, resulting in over 20 casualties.

July 6.—Ministry of Industry and Commerce inaugurated.

July 14.—Twelve Grand Justices as nominated by the President were approved by the Control Yuan.

July 22.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Taiyuan to direct operations there.

July 23.—Budget submitted by Executive Yuan was approved by the Legislative Yuan with modifications.

July 28.—Premier Wong Wen-hao issued message to the nation, pointing out that Chinese Communists were one branch of international communism and appealing for solidarity to cope with the national crisis.

Aug. 5.—Sino-American agreement for the establishment of a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction was signed in Nanking.

Government troops recovered Siangyang, northwestern Hupeh.

Aug. 9.—President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek left Nanking for Kuling.

Aug. 11.—Sino-Italian barter agreement was signed.

Aug. 12.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh announced recognition of the new Korean Government. Liu Yu-wan was appointed Chinese representative to Korea with ambassadorial rank.

Aug. 18.—President Chiang returned to Nanking.

Aug. 19.—By a Presidential mandate, the government adopted a new currency, the Gold Yuan, with the value of one Gold Yuan to three million units of *fapi* (legal tender). Measures for price control, control of gold and foreign exchange, and increase of the salary of government employees were also announced.

Aug. 20.—Economic control supervisory commissioners were appointed for Shanghai, Tientsin and Canton areas.

Aug. 21.—Ex-Premier Chang Chun left for Japan on an inspection tour.

Aug. 23.—Gold Yuan notes were put into circulation.

Aug. 25.—Hsia Wei and Chang Chen were appointed governors of Anhwei and Honan, respectively.

Sept. 1.—Ting Chih-pan was appointed governor of Kiangsu.

Sept. 2.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced the Chinese Government had informed the Soviet Government that China was not prepared to extend the Sino-Soviet Aviation Pact.

Sept. 5.—*Central News* reported from Moscow that Feng Yu-hsiang was killed in a fire on Soviet ship en route to Soviet Union.

Sept. 9.—Committee for the Supervision of Constitutional Government was formed.

Sept. 10.—Chang Chun met General MacArthur in Tokyo for the fourth time since his arrival in Japan. He returned to Shanghai on Sept. 13.

Sept. 13.—Li Liang-yung was appointed governor of Fukien.

Sept. 15.—President Chiang Kai-shek, in a radio broadcast, launched a nation-wide austerity movement.

Sept. 26.—Government troops abandoned Tsinan, capital of Shantung.

Sept. 30.—President Chiang flew to Peiping on an inspection tour.

Oct. 2.—President Chiang flew to Mukden, and returned to Peiping the following day.

Oct. 5.—President Chiang arrived in Tientsin, and inspected the Pohai ports on board a warship.

Oct. 8.—President Chiang arrived in Shanghai from Peiping and returned to Nanking the following day.

Oct. 16.—President Chiang arrived in Peiping again after a flying visit to Mukden.

Oct. 18.—President Chiang flew to Mukden again and returned to Peiping after holding a military conference at the airfield.

Oct. 23.—Changchun fell. Paotow, railway city in Suiyuan, and Chengchow, railway junction in Honan, evacuated by government troops.

Oct. 27.—President Chiang paid flying visit to Chengteh, capital of Jehol.

Oct. 30.—President Chiang returned to Nanking.

Oct. 31.—President Chiang told U. S. correspondents that "if China's northeast could not be kept intact, Far Eastern peace would be impossible."

Nov. 2.—Evacuation of Mukden announced.

Nov. 4.—Government forces evacuated Yingkow.

Nov. 9.—Battle of Hsuchow began.

Nov. 10.—Hsu Kan was appointed Finance Minister to succeed Wang Yun-wu, who resigned.

Nov. 13.—Chen Pu-lei died.

Nov. 22.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek, in a radio broadcast, appealed to the U. S. for aid.

Nov. 23.—Paoting evacuated.

Nov. 25.—Ambassador Wellington Koo called on President Truman, appealing for U. S. aid.

Nov. 26.—The Legislative Yuan approved President Chiang's nomination of Sun Fo as president of the Executive Yuan to succeed Wong Wen-hao, who resigned.

Chang Chun was appointed secretary-general of the Kuomintang Central Political Council.

Nov. 28.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek left Shanghai for the United States.

Chinwangtao evacuated.

Dec. 1.—Madame Chiang arrived in Washington, D. C.

Dec. 3.—Government troops evacuated Hsuchow.

Dec. 10.—Madame Chiang met President Truman.

Dec. 23.—New Cabinet under Sun Fo inaugurated.

Dec. 24.—Tung Kwan-hsien and Liu Chien-chun elected president and vice-president, respectively, of the Legislative Yuan to succeed Sun Fo and Chen Li-fu, who became premier and minister without portfolio, respectively.

Dec. 25.—Government troops evacuated Kalgan.

Dec. 29.—Gen. Chen Cheng appointed governor of Taiwan.

Dec. 30.—Pao Erh Han (Burhan) appointed governor of Sinkiang.

1949

Jan. 1.—President Chiang expressed his wish for a peaceful settlement of the Government-Communist dispute. If the communists were sincere and a peaceful settlement could be realized, he said, he was not concerned about his own personal position.

Premier Sun Fo, in a radio broadcast, expressed his willingness to strive for a peaceful settlement of the civil war.

Jan. 8.—Deputy Premier and Foreign Minister Wu Te-chen received ambassadors of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union, handing them identical copies of a memorandum to inquire their respective government's attitude toward the question of peaceful settlement of China's civil strife.

Jan. 13.—Chairmen of provincial and municipal councils in north China appealed for cease fire in the Peiping-Tientsin area.

Jan. 14.—Chinese communist party made an eight-point proposal for peace negotiations.

Tientsin fell into communist hands.

Jan. 17.—Delegation left Peiping for communist areas to negotiate local peace for Peiping.

Jan. 18.—Generals Chang Chun, Chu Shao-liang, and Yu Han-mou were appointed pacification commissioners for Chungking, Fukien, and Canton, respectively. Tan En-po and Chen Cheng were made commanders-in-chief for the Nanking-Shanghai-Hangchow area and Taiwan, respectively.

Jan. 19.—Executive Yuan proposed to the communists that both sides to cease fire first and then appoint delegates for peace negotiations.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs informed the various diplomatic missions in Nanking to prepare to move to Canton.

Gen. Chu Shao-liang and Fan Tien were appointed governors of Fukien and Kiangsi, respectively.

Jan. 20.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that China had received replies from the governments of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union to the effect that it was difficult to mediate in the Government-Communist dispute.

S. Y. Liu was appointed governor of the Central Bank of China.

Jan. 21.—President Chiang Kai-shek announced his retirement from the presidency and left for Hangchow. Vice President Li Tsung-jen was to exercise presidential powers.

The Executive Yuan received a reply from the communists insisting peace negotiations to be held first before a cease fire order was issued.

Jan. 22.—The Executive Yuan announced the appointment of Shao Li-tze, Chang Chih-chung, and three others as peace negotiators with the communists.

Local truce for the Peiping area was announced.

General Hsueh Yueh was appointed governor of Kwangtung to succeed T. V. Soong.

Jan. 24.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen ordered the abolition of martial law throughout the country, release of political prisoners, and the end of secret police activities.

Kuomintang Central Political Council decided to continue to evacuate government organizations from Nanking.

Jan. 25.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs notified foreign diplomatic missions in Nanking to move to Canton.

Jan. 27.—Acting President Li telegraphed Mao Tse-tung, informing Mao that the communist eight-point proposal might be used as a basis for peace negotiation and requesting him to appoint delegates for negotiation.

Jan. 28.—Communist radio demanded the arrest of "war criminals" in the government and the arrest of Okamura, Japanese ex-commander-in-chief in China.

Okamura was sent back to Japan.

Feb. 2.—Sun Fo arrived in Canton.

Feb. 5.—The Executive Yuan started functioning in Canton.

Feb. 9.—Chang Fa-kwei was appointed commander-in-chief of Chinese Army.

Feb. 12.—Tai Chuan-hsien, ex-president of the Examination Yuan, died in Canton.

Feb. 16.—Chou Yen was appointed governor of Kiangsu. Chu Ting-ching was appointed governor of Hupeh.

Feb. 23.—Chen Chi-tang was appointed governor of Hainan island.

Feb. 28.—Premier Sun Fo returned to Nanking.

Mar. 8.—Premier Sun Fo resigned.

Mar. 12.—The Legislative Yuan approved the nomination of Gen. Ho Ying-chin as Premier.

Mar. 15.—The Legislative Yuan adopted a resolution to simplify the government machinery. The Executive Yuan was to have eight ministries and two commissions.

Mar. 17.—The Ministry of National Defense confirmed that the cruiser *Chungking* had defected to the communist side.

Mar. 20.—Naval Headquarters announced the bombing of the *Chungking* by Chinese air force.

Mar. 24.—Government peace delegation was reorganized; the five delegates were Shao Li-tze, Chang Chih-chung, Huang Shao-hsiung, Chang Shih-chao, and Li Chen.

Mar. 25.—The Chinese Communist party headquarters was moved to Peiping.

Mar. 26.—Communists announced that peace negotiations would be started in Peiping on April 1. Communist representatives were Chou En-lai, Lin Po-chu, Lin Piao, Yeh Chien-ying and Li Weihan.

Fighting continued in Anhwei province.

Mar. 31.—Communists proposed all peace negotiations should be held in closed meetings, no news reporting was allowed.

Apr. 1.—Government peace delegation flew to Peiping.

Fu Tso-yi sent circular telegram to entire nation to express his political stand and to admit his past mistakes.

Apr. 6.—Premier Ho Ying-chin arrived in Canton, returned to Nanking on April 8.

Apr. 14.—Hu Lin, general manager of *Ta Kung Pao,* died in Shanghai.

Apr. 16.—Fighting around Taiyuan was resumed.

Apr. 17.—Communists demanded government acceptance of their eight-point proposal by April 20.

Apr. 19.—Government rejected communist demand.

Apr. 20.—British sloop *Amethyst* was fired on by communist artillery on the north shore of the Yangtze river.

Apr. 21.—Communists resumed all-out offensive, and crossed the Yangtze river at Tikang, southwest of Nanking.

Apr. 22.—Government issued order to continue resistance.

Premier Ho Ying-chin was appointed concurrently Minister of National Defense in charge of the direction of all operations.

Apr. 23.—Government forces evacuated Nanking.

Communists occupied Kiangyin, important fort on the Yangtze west of Shanghai.

Premier Ho arrived in Shanghai.

Acting President Li Tsung-jen flew to Kweilin.

Apr. 24.—Communist troops entered Nanking.

Communist troops entered Taiyuan.

Apr. 27.—President Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Shanghai, issued statement reiterating his determination to suppress the communist rebellion.

Government recalled peace delegation from Peiping.

Government troops evacuated Soochow.

Apr. 28.—Government troops evacuated Ishing, Changhsing and Wushing.

President Chiang left Shanghai for Amoy.

Apr. 29.—The Executive Yuan announced all government departments had been moved to Canton.

Apr. 30.—Hangchow was evacuated.

May 4.—Chinese Communists concluded mutual aid pacts with Korean and Burmese Communists.

May 9.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in Canton from Kweilin.

May 12.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman stated in Canton that China's foreign policy remained unchanged.

Warships *Tai Hu* and *Tai Chao,* presented to China by the United States, arrived in Taiwan.

May 13.—Legislative Yuan adopted resolution to support the government to continue the war against the communists.

May 15.—Government troops evacuated Hankow and Wuchang.

May 19.—Ma Pu-fang was appointed director of military and political affairs for the northwest.

May 20.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen issued message to entire nation, expressing his determination to lead the nation in the anti-communist war.

Government forces evacuated Sian.

May 21.—Kan Chieh-hou, acting President Li Tsung-jen's personal representative, arrived in San Francisco.

May 27.—Government forces evacuated Shanghai and Woosung.

May 28.—*Shun Pao* and *Sin Wan Pao,* largest daily newspapers in Shanghai, were closed by the communists.

May 30.—Premier Ho Ying-chin resigned. Acting President Li Tsung-jen nominated Chu Cheng as successor.

May 31.—The Legislative Yuan disapproved the nomination of Chu Cheng as premier.

Soviet Ambassador Roschin left Canton for Russia via Paris.

June 1.—Sino-Soviet aviation pact was extended for five years.

June 2.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen nominated Yen Hsi-shan as premier to succeed Gen. Ho Ying-chin.

June 3.—Legislative Yuan approved the nomination of Yen Hsi-shan as premier.

June 4.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan announced that his new cabinet would be a war cabinet.

Government forces evacuated Tsingtao.

June 5.—Premier Yen arrived in Canton from Taipeh.

June 8.—Martial law was declared in Hunan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

June 12.—George K. C. Yeh was appointed acting foreign minister, pending the return of Hu Shih from the United States. Hu Shih had been appointed foreign minister in Premier Yen Hsi-shan's new cabinet.

June 15.—Taiwan adopted a new currency. The new *Taipi* (New Taiwan Dollar) was linked with the United States currency at the rate of 5 to 1.

The *Shanghai Evening Post and Mercury,* American-owned English-language paper in Shanghai, closed down.

June 20.—The Executive Yuan announced closure of communist-held sea ports, including Shanghai, Tientsin and Tsingtao, as of June 26.

June 22.—Kan Chieh-hou, Acting President Li's personal envoy, called on President Truman.

June 24.—Finance Minister Hsu Kan was appointed concurrently governor of the Central Bank of China.

July 2.—By a Presidential mandate, China adopted a new currency—the Silver Dollar Notes.

July 4.—President Chiang Kai-shek received two U. S. correspondents in Taipeh, asserting that as a revolutionary he was determined to fight the communists to the end. He appealed for American aid and pointed out that Chinese Communists were carrying out the policies of international communism.

July 8.—American vice consul Oliver in Shanghai was arrested by the communists, released the following day.

July 10.—President Chiang, in his capacity of *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang, flew to Baguio to meet President Quirino of the Philippines. The two presidents discussed the formation of a Pacific Union and a Far Eastern anti-communist alliance.

July 12.—President Chiang returned to Taiwan.

July 13.—Chinese legation in the Philippines was raised to the status of embassy.

Shih Chueh was appointed garrison commander of the Chusan archipelago.

July 14.—President Chiang arrived in Canton.

July 16.—The Kuomintang Supreme Council was inaugurated under the presidency of Chiang Kai-shek.

July 18.—The standing committee of the Kuomintang adopted President Chiang's program for party reform.

Gen. Chen Cheng was appointed director of military and political affairs for the southeast.

July 21.—President Chiang left Canton for Amoy.

Government forces evacuated Nanchang.

July 22.—President Chiang arrived in Amoy.

Communists closed down the U. S. Information Service Tientsin office.

July 23.—*Coup d'etat* was reported in Lhasa. Government personnel was ordered to leave Tibet.

July 24.—President Chiang returned to Taipeh.

July 25.—American-owned Chase Bank in Tientsin was closed down.

July 26.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen left Canton on an inspection tour of the southeast.

July 27.—Acting President Li arrived in Taipeh.

Government forces evacuated Chuchow, railway junction in central Hunan.

Ma Hung-kwei was appointed governor of Kansu.

July 30.—Acting President Li returned to Canton.

Government forces evacuated Changteh, northwestern Hunan.

July 31.—British sloop *Amethyst* escaped from the Yangtze river.

Russia concluded trade agreement with the so-called "Manchurian People's Democratic Authorities."

Aug. 1.—The *Tsungtsai's* Office of the Kuomintang was established in Taipeh.

Aug. 2.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart arrived in Okinawa from Shanghai.

Aug. 3.—President Chiang Kai-shek left Taipeh for Korea to meet President Syngman Rhee. He stopped at Tinghai for three days.

Aug. 4.—Government ordered arrest of Cheng Chien, pacification commissioner for Hunan and Kiangsi, who defected to the communist side.

Aug. 5.—The United States Government issued a White Paper, called "United States Relations with China."

Hunan Governor Chen Ming-jen defected to the Reds.

Huang Chieh, vice minister of national defense, was appointed governor of Hunan.

Aug. 6.—President Chiang arrived in Chinhai, South Korea, to confer with Korean President Rhee on the formation of a Pacific alliance.

China protested to Russia against the latter's conclusion of a trade agreement with the so-called "Manchurian People's Democratic Authorities."

Aug. 7.—President Chiang returned to Taipeh.

Aug. 10.—Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart arrived in Washington.

Aug. 12.—Wu Te-chen, minister without portfolio, arrived in Tokyo to call on Gen. MacArthur.

Aug. 16.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued statement on the United States White Paper.

Aug. 17.—Government forces evacuated Foochow.

Aug. 20.—Wu Te-chen returned to Taipeh.

Aug. 23.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Canton to confer with Acting President Li Tsung-jen and Premier Yen Hsi-shan.

Aug. 24.—President Chiang flew to Chungking.

Government announced closure of sea ports north of the estuary of the Min river.

Aug. 25.—Kwan Lin-chen was appointed commander-in-chief of the Chinese Army.

Aug. 27.—Government forces evacuated Lanchow.

Aug. 29.—Communists announced formation of the "Northeast People's Government."

Sept. 2.—Government ordered the arrest of Mao Tse-tung, Chu Teh and other communist leaders.

Sept. 4.—*Coup d'etat* was reported to be taking place in Kunming, capital of Yunnan province. Governor Lu Han was reported to have declared independence.

Sept. 6.—Governor Lu Han of Yunnan flew to Chungking to call on President Chiang Kai-shek.

Sept. 7.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan flew to Chungking.

Sept. 8.—Lu Han, governor of Yunnan, returned to Kunming.

Sept. 9.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan returned to Canton.

Sept. 10.—Government announced the dissolution of the Yunnan Provincial Council because of its anti-government activities. Leftist newspapers were ordered closed. National Yunnan University and other schools were dissolved, to be reorganized by the Ministry of Education.

Sept. 12.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Chengtu.

Sept. 15.—British Foreign Office announced recall of Ambassador Sir Ralph Stevenson from Nanking.

Sept. 16.—Communists landed on Pingtan island off Fukien.

Sept. 17.—President Chiang returned to Chungking.

Korean consulate-general opened in Taipeh.

Sept. 21.—Communist Leader Mao Tse-tung announced establishment of the "People's Republic of China" in Peiping.

Sept. 22.—President Chiang returned to Canton via Kunming.

Chinese chief delegate to UN asked nations to pay due attention to the China situation; accused USSR of undermining peace in the Far East.

Ex-Premier Ho Ying-chin was appointed chairman of the Military Strategy Advisory Committee.

Sept. 27.—China filed complaint in the United Nations General Assembly against the USSR, accusing the latter of aiding the Chinese Communists in the civil war and violating the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the Charter of the United Nations.

Oct. 1.—Communists announced establishment of the "People's Republic of China," with Mao Tse-tung as "Chairman" of the "People's Central Government," and Chou En-lai as "premier and concurrently foreign minister."

George K. C. Yeh was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Oct. 2.—USSR announced recognition of the puppet Communist Government in Peiping.

Chief of the General Staff Ku Chu-tung resigned. Hsiao Yi-shu was appointed Acting Chief of the General Staff.

Oct. 3.—Foreign Minister George Yeh announced that China severed diplomatic relations with USSR.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned to Taipeh.

Kwan Chi-yu was appointed Minister of Finance, succeeding Hsu Kan.

Oct. 4.—Bulgaria, Rumania and Czechoslovakia recognized the Peiping regime.

U. S. Department of State issued statement, reaffirming U. S. recognition of the National Government as the legal government of China.

Oct. 6.—Government forces evacuated Chintang island, of the Chushan archipelago.

Chinese Ambassador to France Tsien Tai resigned, M. L. Tuan was appointed Minister in charge of the Embassy.

Nationalists scored victory at Chingshuping in central Hunan.

Yugoslavia recognized the puppet Peiping government.

Oct. 7.—Government troops evacuated Kukong.

Oct. 8.—Government troops evacuated Hengyang.

Oct. 9.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek issued Double Tenth message, accusing Russian aggression on China and reiterating determination to fight communism to bitter end.

Oct. 10.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen reiterated determination to continue the anti-communist war in an address observing the Double Tenth in Canton.

Soviet Ambassador to the puppet government, Maj.-Gen. R. N. Roschin, arrived in Peiping.

Oct. 12.—A presidential mandate announced the moving of the Central Government from Canton to Chungking.

Oct. 13.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen left Canton for Kweilin.

Oct. 14.—Government troops evacuated Canton.

Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in Chungking.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned to Taipeh after a three-day inspection tour of Tinghai.

Oct. 16.—Kwangtung Governor Hsueh Yueh arrived in Hoikow, Hainan island.

U. S. Senator Alexander Smith arrived in Taipeh; left the following day.

Oct. 17.—Government troops evacuated Amoy.

Central News Agency disclosed that Chinese Communists had concluded secret pacts with Russia in Harbin, giving Russia virtual control of China's political, economic and military affairs.

Outer Mongolia recognized the puppet Peiping regime.

U. S. Charge d'Affairs Robert Strong arrived in Chungking.

Oct. 20.—Six U. S. Congressmen appealed for China aid and non-recognition of Chinese Communist regime.

Communist cabinet was formed in Peiping.

Government troops evacuated Taohua island of the Chushan group.

Oct. 21.—Government troops evacuated Swatow.

Oct. 25.—Taiwan celebrated fourth anniversary of Liberation Day.

Oct. 27.—Communist invasion of Kingmen (Quemoy) island was repulsed.

Oct. 29.—Angus Ward, U. S. consul-general at Mukden, and four of his staff members were imprisoned by the communists.

Nov. 10.—Communist forces pushed to within 150 miles east of Chungking.

Nov. 11.—Eleven planes of the Central Air Transport Corp. and the China National Aviation Corp. were flown by defectionists to Peiping from Hongkong.

Nov. 15.— The *S.S. Flying Cloud* was shelled by Chinese naval vessel enforcing closure of Shanghai harbor.

Nov. 16.—U. S. Secretary of State Dean Acheson declared in Washington that U. S. recognition of Chinese Communist regime was out of question as long as the communists continued to hold Angus Ward under arrest.

U. S. protested to government for attack on the *S.S. Flying Cloud.*

Nov. 18.—Communists sent radio message to the United Nations in an attempt to discredit the Chinese delegation.

Nov. 20.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived at Hongkong from Kweilin.

Nov. 22.—Kweilin fell.

Nov. 25.—T. F. Tsiang charged USSR with violating UN Charter and the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 at the opening debate of the Political Committee of the UN General Assembly.

Angus Ward and four of his staff members were convicted by the communists of beating a former Chinese employee. They were given sentences from three to six months imprisonment, which were commuted to deportation.

U. S. Senator William F. Knowland and Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault conferred with Generalissimo Chiang at Chungking.

Nov. 26.—Dr. Tsiang introduced a four-point resolution at the UN Political Committee.

Nov. 27.—Communists ordered deportation of all non-Chinese members of U. S. consulate at Mukden.

Nov. 28.—U. S., together with Australia, Mexico, Pakistan and the Philippines, introduced a draft resolution on China-USSR dispute at UN.

The *S.S. Sir John Franklin* was fired upon by Chinese war vessels enforcing closure of Shanghai harbor.

Nov. 30.—Chungking fell to the communists. Generalissimo Chiang left Chungking for Chengtu.

Dec. 2.—Regarding the *S.S. Sir John Franklin* incident, the U. S. requested China to stop any further attack on American vessels.

Dec. 4.—Generalissimo Chiang announced plans to fly reinforcements from northwest China to defend the southwest.

Dec. 5.—Cuba, Ecuador and Peru sponsored a joint resolution to refer China's case to the U.N. Interim Committtee (Little Assembly) for continued examination.

Dec. 6.—Foreign Minister George Yeh, in a verbal reply to U. S. Charge d'Affairs at Hongkong Robert Strong, regarding the U. S. note of Dec. 2, reaffirmed China's right of closing the communist-held ports.

Dec. 7.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in New York for medical treatment.

Dec. 8.—The Cuba-Ecuador-Peru resolution, with subsequent amendments submitted by Lebanon and Uruguay, was adopted by the U.N. Political Committee which also accepted the U. S.-sponsored five-power resolution.

Premier Yen Hsi-shan flew to Taipeh from Chengtu.

Communist forces thrust into Yunnan.

Dec. 9.—Cabinet started functioning in Taipeh.

Dec. 10.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived at Taipei from Chengtu by plane.

Dec. 12.—Angus Ward and party boarded the *S. S. Lakeland Victory* at Tientsin en route to U. S.

Dec. 16.—Mao Tse-tung arrived in Moscow.

Communist troops pushed to Chennankwan on Kwangsi-Indo-China border.

Dec. 17.—Burma recognized Chinese Communist regime.

U. S. State Department classified Shanghai as a "zone of danger" hazardous for American shipping.

Dec. 18.—National Government severed diplomatic relations with Burma.

Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault and his partner Whiting Willauer bought Chinese Government's interests in the China National Aviation Corp. and the Central Air Transport Corp.

Dec. 21.—K. C. Wu was appointed Governor of Taiwan to succeed General Chen Cheng.

Dec. 23.—V. K. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador at Washington, sent letter to U. S. State Department asking for American assistance to Taiwan.

Dec. 26.—Communist forces entered Chengtu.

Dec. 28.—China extended diplomatic recognition to Indonesia.

Government planes blasted communist shiping along Luichow peninsula coast.

Dec. 29.—Approaches to the Yangtze river and Shanghai within Chinese territorial waters declared mined.

Dec. 30.—India recognized Chinese Communist regime.

CHAPTER 6

CONSTITUTIONAL MOVEMENT

China's constitutional movement dates back to the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. Since then various constitutions have been drafted and adopted. Among these may be mentioned the "Outline" of 1905, the "Nineteen Articles" of 1911, the "Provisional Compact" of 1912, the "Tien Tan (Temple of Heaven) Draft" of 1913, and the so-called "Tsao Kun Constitution" of 1923.

The National Government came into power in 1928 committed to constitutionalism. The three-stage procedure laid down by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in his "Fundamentals of National Reconstruction" of 1924 is its basic program. The fundamentals stipulated that following the unification of the country by military force there should be a period of political tutelage under the Kuomintang. After this period constitutional rule should be instituted.

At the third plenary session of the Kuomintang's fourth Central Executive Committee held in December, 1932, it was resolved that a National Assembly be convened and that a draft constitution be drawn up by the Legislative Yuan. Accordingly, the first draft constitution was completed in 1933, and it was promulgated on May 5, 1936.*

In December, 1935, the Kuomintang's fifth CEC resolved at its first plenary session that the National Assembly be convened on November 12, 1936, and that the election of 1,200 Assembly delegates be completed before October 10, 1936. Vastness of the country and other difficulties delayed completion of the election. Convocation of the National Assembly was postponed to November 12, 1937. War started in July. Convocation of the assembly was again postponed.

POLITICAL COUNCIL

The People's Political Council, which had served successfully during and after the war as a bridge to constitutional government, went out of existence on March 29, 1948, when the National Assembly was convened. Many of its members had been elected either as delegates to the National Assembly or as members of the Legislative Yuan.

At the first meeting, held in Hankow in July, 1938, the PPC pledged the undivided support of the whole nation, regardless of political beliefs, to fight on until victory under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The second meeting was held in Chungking in October, 1938. Hankow had just fallen and defeatist talk was being heard throughout China. The council reiterated its determination that under no circumstances would the Chinese people surrender to aggression. The council met for its third meeting in Chungking in February, 1939. Wang Ching-wei, second only to the generalissimo in the Kuomintang, had joined the Japanese and was urging the Chinese to abandon their fight. This council initiated the national spiritual mobilization. There was mass oath-taking, equivalent to a common Chinese contract, to disown the Japanese puppet Wang and his followers.

The council was neither a representative organ, since its members were not popularly elected; nor was it a lawmaking body, since its powers were restricted to discussion of government policies, submittal of proposals, obtaining of reports, and interpellation of the government.

The council originated in March, 1938, when the Emergency National Congress of the Kuomintang resolved that "the government should set up an organ for participation by the people in public affairs, whereby the services of all persons of outstanding virtues and of great wisdom may be utilized in the formation of state policies." The council had 200 members, seven of whom were from the Chinese Communist party, including Mao Tze-tung, the top Chinese Communist leader.

* See *China Handbook*, 1943, for full text.

The organic law of the People's Political Council, promulgated on April 12, 1938, provided that of 200 members 88 be nominated on a regional basis, six from Mongolia and Tibet, six from overseas Chinese communities, and 100 from among persons who had served more than three years in major cultural and economic organizations. All were selected by the Kuomintang and their term of office was two years.

The second PPC, which met early in 1941, had 240 members. Ninety members were elected by the provincial and municipal councils, both on a regional and professional basis. The second PPC, as a new power, could investigate matters entrusted to it by the government. The second PPC held two plenary sessions: the first session, March 1-10, 1941; second session, November 17-26, 1941.

Communist members stayed away from the first session of the second PPC. They criticized the government for disbanding the New Fourth Army on the southern Anhwei-Kiangsu border in January, 1941. They requested but were refused government recognition of the communist regime in the Kansu-Shensi-Ningsia border as a prerequisite to their presence at the council. Aiming to work out a compromise, members of the third PPC proposed on September 14, 1944, to send a five-man inspection group to study actual conditions in Yenan. Three days later, Generalissimo Chiang, as acting president of the Executive Yuan, promised the councillors an end to the Kuomintang tutelage as soon as practicable.

In 1944, the PPC organic law was again revised, increasing membership to 290. Of these 199 were elected by provincial and municipal councils. The council had the right to deliberate on the national budget and its investigatory powers were further enlarged. The Fourth PPC held three plenary sessions: first session, July, 1945; second session, March, 1946; third session, May, 1947.

On July 1, 1945, five councillors flew back from Yenan, carrying with them the communists' proposals. They were received by Generalissimo Chiang, who promised to study their proposals. At this time General George C. Marshall came to China to attempt a settlement of the government-communist dispute. Although the Chinese communists resorted to open rebellion, the council did not abandon hope. Even as late as May 26, 1947, at its last plenary session, the council resolved to wire Yenan urging the communist members to attend its meeting. The open rebellion made it physically impossible to deliver the message.

In nine years of existence the PPC held 13 plenary sessions. Most of its 2,221 resolutions were accepted and enforced by the government. Although its powers were limited, the council lived up to its avowed purpose as the representative organ of the people. It helped enact many democratic laws and effect many necessary reforms.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Despite the widespread hostilities, the Kuomintang's fifth CEC at its sixth plenary session held in October, 1939, again decided to call the National Assembly in November, 1940. Severe wartime dislocation in communications prevented assembly delegates from arriving in Chungking in time for the meeting. In August, 1941, the National Assembly Hall in Chungking was destroyed by Japanese bombing, leading to further postponement.

At the eleventh plenary session of the fifth CEC, held in September, 1943, it was decided to convene the National Assembly to adopt a constitution within one year after the end of the war. In May, 1945, the sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang accepted President Chiang Kai-shek's proposal that the National Assembly be convened on November 12, 1945.

Of the 1,200 members of the assembly, 950 were elected in prewar days. Of these, 557 were delegates of the various provinces and municipalities, 311 of vocational organizations, 26 of Mongolia and Tibet, 26 of overseas China communities, and 30 of the armed forces. Delegates yet to be elected numbered 250. By the end of February, 1945, of the elected delegates 161 had either died or lost their status as delegates.

Problems concerning membership of the National Assembly, legality of the delegates elected before the war, duties of the first assembly and other related questions were considered by the Fourth People's Political Council. This was held in July, 1945, in accordance with a resolution passed by the Kuomintang National Congress held in May of the same year.

The PPC adopted the following resolutions on the pending issues concerning the National Assembly:

"1. The date for the convocation of the National Assembly is to be left to the discretion of the government.

"2. The membership of the assembly should be decided with due regard to the legal and practical aspects of the issue

and in such a way as to give the fullest possible representation to all classes of people in the country.

"3. The constitution should be enforced as soon as it is adopted.

"4. Prior to the convocation of the assembly, the government is to continue to employ all available political means for attaining national unity and solidarity; to insure freedom of opinion, of publication, of assembly, of organizing political societies; to enforce the regulations for safeguarding the freedom of the human person; to recognize the legal status of various political parties; and to complete the setting up of people's representative organs in all provinces of Free China in order to lay a solid foundation for local self-government."

For the furtherance of constitutional rule, the Supreme National Defense Council in November, 1943, organized a commission for the inauguration of the constitutional government. The functions of this commission were: (1) to make proposals to the government concerning preparations for the establishment of constitutional government; (2) to investigate the progress of local self-government and to make reports thereon to the government; (3) to investigate the enforcement of laws and regulations concerning constitutional government and to make reports thereon; (4) to serve as a link between the government and the people in connection with the question of constitutional government and related political problems; and (5) to deliberate on matters relating to the constitution as mandated by the government.

The commission was composed of leaders from all walks of life and political parties, with President Chiang Kai-shek as chairman. It was to this commission that President Chiang reported the negotiations betwen the government and the Chinese Communist party and made the announcement that he would propose to the Kuomintang National Congress to convene the National Assembly on November 12, 1946.

MULTI-PARTY CONFERENCE

The Political Consultation Conference, which met in Chungking in January, 1946, and to which all parties and nonpartisan leaders, including the communists, were invited to exchange views on national affairs, had as one of its chief aims the discussion of questions concerning the convocation of the National Assembly. It decided that its authority should be confined to the adoption of a constitution. While the 1,200 delegates already elected in 1936 were to retain their seats, an additional 150 regional and vocational delegates were to be elected for Taiwan and the northeastern provinces, and an additional 700 seats were allotted to the various political parties and independent social leaders. This brought the total number of delegates in the National Assembly up to 2,050. Distribution of the 700 additional delegates was as follows: Kuomintang, 220; Chinese Communist party, 190; Democratic League, 120; Young China party, 100; and independents, 70.

It did not take the conference long to reach an agreement on the draft constitution, since its adoption was dependent on the National Assembly. It appointed a multi-party Draft Constitution Examination committee to revise the draft constitution along lines indicated by the Political Consultation Conference. When completed, the revised draft was to be presented to the National Assembly for adoption.

The principles recommended by the PCC on the revision of the draft constitution included drastic changes in the May 5 draft. These can be summarized as follows:

(1) The National Assembly as provided under the draft constitution was transformed in such a way that it existed only in name, for it was stipulated that the National Assembly should be the organ whereby the electorates of the entire nation were to exercise their powers of suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum.

(2) The Legislative Yuan should be the highest legislative organ of the state, and it should be directly elected by universal suffrage. Under the draft constitution, the Legislative Yuan was to be elected by the National Assembly. Through this revision, China's constitutional legislature was elevated to a higher position than that provided under the May 5 draft, and was given powers comparable to those of the parliament in other democratic states.

(3) As provided in the draft constitution, the president of the Executive Yuan was to be appointed and subject to removal by the President of the Republic and was responsible only to the head of the state. The PPC principles specified that the president of the Executive Yuan should be nominated by the President and appointed with the concurrence of the Legislative Yuan, thereby holding the executive branch of the government responsible to the legislature. It further prescribed that when the Legislative Yuan expressed a lack of confidence in the Executive Yuan as a whole, the latter should either resign or ask the President to dissolve the Legislative Yuan. The same president of the Executive Yuan, however, may not ask for dissolution of the Legislative Yuan twice.

(4) Presidential powers under the draft constitution were considerably larger than that granted under the PPC principles. The author of the draft constitution favored election of the President by the National Assembly, and proposed the vesting the President with power to issue emergency decrees in any situation requiring immediate action. This authority would be subject to legislative confirmation within three months after issuance of such decrees. Members of the PPC, on the other hand, thought it advisable to give the President only powers to issue emergency orders for the enforcement of decisions of the Executive Yuan, the President being required to report such action to the Legislative Yuan within one month. On the election of the President, the PCC ruled that until election by universal suffrage could become a fact, the President should be elected by an electoral college to be formed by the central, provincial and hsien councils.

(5) The PCC decision on local administration constituted another broad departure from the draft constitution. The PCC proposed that in the new national charter, a chapter should be added to demarcate the lines of authority between the central and the provincial governments. It also decided that the province should be the highest unit for local self-rule.

Under the draft constitution, the provincial government was to execute the laws and orders of the central government and supervise local self-government, with its governor appointed by the President of the Republic. The PCC principles stipulated that the provincial administration should be elective and authorized the province to have its own constitution provided it did not contravene provisions of the national charter.

(6) On the rights and duties of citizens, the draft constitution ruled among other things that all citizens should have personal liberty and, except in accordance with law, could not be arrested, detained, tried or punished; while by the PCC resolution, all freedoms and rights normally enjoyed by people in a democratic nation are guaranteed and protected by the constitution, and are not subject to illegal infringement.

(7) Under the draft constitution, the power for revision of the constitution was vested in the National Assembly. The PCC gave this power to the joint meeting of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan. Constitutional revision, however, must be ratified by the organ that elects the President of the Republic.

These principles for the revision of the draft constitution were discussed by the Kuomintang's sixth CEC in its second plenary session in March, 1946. It found it could not accept some of these principles as they deviated from Dr. Sun Yatsen's teachings. These views were later submitted to the Draft Constitution Examination committee.

DRAFT CONSTITUTION

At a joint meeting of the PCC steering committee and the Draft Constitution Examination committee on March 15, 1946, agreement was reached on the following three points:

(1) The National Assembly should be a functional one with the authority to elect the President and the Vice President of the Republic.

(2) Deletion of the provision which says: "When the Legislative Yuan expresses a lack of confidence in the Executive Yuan as a whole, the latter shall either resign or ask the President to dissolve the former, but the same president of the Executive Yuan may not request the dissolution of the Legislative Yuan more than once."

(3) Institution of a provincial self-government law instead of a constitution for each province.

It was the decision of the Political Consultation Conference to convene the National Assembly on May 5, 1946, but the violation of the cease-fire order on the part of the communists and their failure to submit the name list of their delegates made it impossible for the government to hold the assembly as scheduled. The assembly was, therefore, postponed to November 12 of the same year, in the hope that differences between the government and the Chinese Communist party could be composed during the intervening months.

As the November 12 dateline approached, the communists' attitude was as obdurate as ever. The communists turned down President Chiang's offer, to issue a fresh cease-fire order if the communists submitted a list of their delegates to the assembly. Nevertheless, the government instructed its troops throughout the country on November 8 to cease fire and remain at their respective positions. In a last-minute effort to find some basis of

peaceful settlement with the communists, the assembly was further postponed for three days.

The attitude of the government won the support of other minority parties, but not of the communists and their close associates. When the assembly was finally inaugurated in Nanking on November 15, the communists and their collaborators were conspicuous by their absence. In the election of the 55-man presidium, however, nine seats were reserved for the Chinese Communist party and the Democratic League. But the communists continued to boycott the assembly.

On November 27, President Chiang introduced the draft constitution, revised in accordance with PCC-approved principles, to the assembly. When the assembly's committees began work on the draft, a large number of dissenting views and amendments were offered. But the assembly's steering committee, at the personal request of President Chiang, ignored all amendments proposed which contravened the principles recommended by the PCC in January.

On December 25, forty-one days after the opening session, the National Assembly rushed through the third and final reading and approved the new national charter. The National Assembly also decided that the new constitution be promulgated on New Year's Day, 1947, to go into effect on December 25 of the same year. Interim measures for the inauguration of the constitutional government were provided in a resolution of the assembly. It was also resolved that the election of delegates to the National Assembly and of members of the Legislative Yuan and Control Yuan must be completed by the end of September, 1947.

By and large, the new national charter of 14 chapters with 175 articles contains the main points agreed upon at the Political Consultation Conference.

Following the adjournment of the National Assembly, the government started to broaden its basis by inviting the minority parties and non-partisan leaders to join the State Council, the Legislative, Executive and Control Yuan, the People's Political Council, and the Commission for the Inauguration of Constitutional Government, despite the continued opposition of the communists and the intensification of their armed rebellion.

The standing committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee adopted at its meeting on February 10 the following resolutions on the broadening of the basis of the administration:

(1) Of the new seats in the Legislative Yuan, the Control Yuan, and the People's Political Council, half should go to the Kuomintang and non-partisans and half to the Young China party and the Democratic Socialists.

(2) The resident committee of the Commission for the Inauguration of Constitutional Government should be composed of three-fourths of Kuomintang and non-partisan members, and one-fourth of Democratic Socialists and Young China members.

(3) Minority party representatives on the above-mentioned government organizations should be nominated by the respective political parties and approved by the standing committee of the Kuomintang CEC.

GOVERNMENT REORGANIZATION

In a mandate on March 1, 1947, the government expanded its legislative, supervisory and deliberative branches by appointing 81 non-Kuomintang members to the Legislative Yuan, the Control Yuan and the People's Political Council, marking the beginning of the end of the Kuomintang's 20-year-old role as China's political tutor. Fifty new seats were added to the 99-man Legislative Yuan with the following distribution: Kuomintang, 17; non-partisans, 8; Young China party, 13; and Democratic Socialists, 12. The Control Yuan was augmented by 25 seats, bringing the total up to 49 members. The new seats were apportioned as follows: Kuomintang, 9; non-partisans, 3; Young China party, 6; and Democratic Socialists, 7. The PPC membership was increased to include 12 Kuomintang members; 11 non-partisans; and 11 each from the Young China party and the Democratic Socialists.

The Kuomintang Central Executive Committee voted on March 24 to abolish the Supreme National Defense Council, which up to then had been the highest policy-making organ in the government, to make way for the multi-party state council of 40 members. The Kuomintang CEC also decided to create a vice-presidency in the government.

The reorganization of the state council by taking in non-Kuomintang members and the selection of Dr. Sun Fo as the vice-president of China and Chang Chun as president of the Executive Yuan were officially announced on April 17. The changes became effective on the following day, the 20th anniversary of the establishment of the national government in Nanking. Headed by President Chiang Kai-shek the state council was composed of 17 Kuomintang members, 4 non-partisans, 4 each from the Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party. Nine seats were reserved for the Chinese Communist party and the Democratic League should the communists cease in their attempt to seize power by force, and should the Democratic League stop supporting the communists.

China's multi-party government, which was to rule the nation during the transition from Kuomintang tutelage to constitutionalism, commenced functioning on April 24 with the inaugural meeting of the new State Council. President Chiang presided over the State Council and approved the cabinet list submitted by Premier Chang Chun, which was composed of 16 Kuomintang and 10 non-Kuomintang members. To comply with the wishes of the minority parties, Article 15 of the organic law of the national government was revised, thereby relieving the president of his responsibilities to the Kuomintang CEC and giving the reorganized government a truly coalition character.

On April 1, the national government promulgated six organic and four electoral laws, thus completing the first stage of its preparations for the enforcement of the new constitution scheduled for December 25, 1947. The six organic laws cover the organization of the National Assembly and the five Yuan of the government—Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination, and Control. The four electoral laws are those governing the election of the president and the vice-president, national assembly delegates, and members of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

According to the laws, the President and the Vice-President are to be elected by the National Assembly by a simple majority. Any Chinese citizen, having attained the age of forty and upon the nomination of 100 or more National Assembly delegates, may become a presidential or vice-presidential candidate. Any Chinese citizen, upon attaining the age of twenty-three, is qualified to run for election to the Legislative Yuan and the National Assembly, but the candidate to the former must either be nominated by a political party or by 3,000 voters, and to the latter either through nomination by a political party or by 500 voters.

Under the law, Control Yuan members are to be elected by the provincial and municipal councils, the local district councils of Mongolia and Tibet, and overseas Chinese communities, and they must be above thirty-five years of age.

The National Assembly is to be composed of 3,045 delegates elected according to the geographical division of the nation and on the basis of vocational representation.

The election of National Assembly delegates was held in a three-day period beginning November 21, 1947, throughout the country in areas free from communist disturbances; in a corresponding period two months later, the election of Legislative Yuan members was conducted. In both elections, the Kuomintang scored signal victories, winning 90 percent of the seats in the National Assembly and the National Assembly and the Legislative Yuan.

The National Assembly, originally scheduled to meet on December 25, was delayed at that time because the results of the election held in late November were difficult to determine. In a mandate issued on Christmas Day, the government ordered the enforcement of China's new constitution and convocation of the first elected National Assembly on March 29, 1948, to elect the first President and Vice-President of the Republic under the new constitution. The tenure of the People's Political Council, formed during the war as a deliberate and consultative organ, was extended until the convocation of the National Assembly.

ELECTION OF PRESIDENT

The first session of the First National Assembly opened as scheduled on March 29, 1948. In a month-long session, the National Assembly elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek first president under the new constitution and General Li Tsung-jen first vice-president. President Chiang was sworn in on May 20, 1948.

The new Legislative Yuan began its session on May 8, and the nomination of Dr. Wong Wen-hao as president of the Executive Yuan was confirmed by the yuan on May 24. Seven days later President Chiang approved the cabinet list submitted by Premier Wong. With the convocation of the Control Yuan on June 1, and its subsequent consent to the nomination of Dr. Wang Chung-hui as president of the Judicial Yuan and the nomination of Dr. Chang Po-lin as president of the Examination Yuan, the organization of the constitutional government was completed.

The establishment of the constitutional government brought to a successful conclusion the efforts of the Kuomintang in its fifty years of national revolution. For the realization of constitutional democracy, many revolutionaries under the

leadership of Dr. Sun Yat-sen and President Chiang Kai-shek labored hard and even gave their lives.

In his message to the closing session of the National Assembly on May 1, President Chiang said: "From now on the Government must be guided by the Constitution in all its measures. This shall be done as much for the purpose of exercising governing powers endowed by the national charter, as for the purpose of making our government a government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

(Adopted by the National Assembly on December 25, 1946 and promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1947, it went into effect on December 25, 1947)

PREAMBLE

The National Assembly of the Republic of China, by virtue of the mandate received from the whole body of citizens, and acting in accordance with the teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Founder of the Republic of China, and in order to consolidate the authority of the State, safeguard the rights of the people, ensure social tranquility and promote the welfare of the people, hereby adopts this Constitution and causes it to be promulgated for faithful and permanent observance by all in the country.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article 1.—The Republic of China, founded on the basis of the San Min Chu I (Three People's Principles), shall be a democratic republic of the people to be governed by the people and for the people.

Article 2.—The sovereignty of the Republic of China shall reside in the whole body of citizens.

Article 3.—Persons possessing Chinese nationality shall be citizens of the Republic of China.

Article 4.—The territory of the Republic of China, as represented by her existing geographical areas, shall not be altered except by resolution of the National Assembly.

Article 5.—All component racial groups in the Republic of China shall enjoy equal rights.

Article 6.—The National Flag of the Republic of China shall have a red background with a blue sky and a white sun in the upper left corner.

CHAPTER II

RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF THE PEOPLE

Article 7.—All citizens of the Republic of China, irrespective of sex, religion, race, class or party affiliation, shall be equal before the law.

Article 8.—The people shall be guaranteed freedom of person. Except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto* as otherwise provided for by law, no person shall be arrested or detained except by a judicial or a police organ in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. No person shall be tried or punished except by a law court in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. Any arrest, detention, trial or punishment not in accordance with procedure prescribed by law may be contested.

When a person is arrested or detained on suspicion of having committed a crime, the organ making the arrest or detention shall in writing inform the said person and his designated relative or friend of the reason for his arrest or detention, and shall, within twenty-four hours, turn him over to a competent court for trial. The said person, or any other individual, may petition the competent court that a writ be served within twenty-four hours on the organ making the arrest for the surrender of the said person for trial.

The court may not reject the petition mentioned in the preceding paragraph, nor may it order the organ concerned to make an investigation and report first. The organ concerned may not refuse or delay to execute the writ of the court for the surrender of the said person for trial.

When a person is arrested or detained illegally, he, or any other person, may petition the court for an investigation. The court may not reject such a petition, and shall, within twenty-four hours, pursue the investigation with the organ concerned, and proceed with the matter in accordance with law.

Article 9.—Except those in active military service, no person shall be subject to trial by a military court.

Article 10.—The people shall have freedom of domicile and of changing their domicile.

Article 11.—The people shall have freedom of speech, academic instruction, writing and publication.

Article 12.—The people shall have freedom of secret correspondence.

Article 13.—The people shall have freedom of religious belief.

Article 14.—The people shall have freedom of assembly and freedom to form associations.

Article 15.—The people's right to life, right to work and right to property shall be inviolate.

Article 16.—The people shall have the right to present petitions, file complaints or institute legal proceedings.

Article 17.—The people shall have the rights of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

Article 18.—The people shall have the right to take civil service examinations and to hold public offices.

Article 19.—The people shall have the obligation to pay taxes in accordance with law.

Article 20.—The people shall have the obligation to perform military service in accordance with law.

Article 21.—The people shall have the right as well as the obligation to receive public education.

Article 22.—All other freedoms and rights of the people that do not jeopardize the social order or general welfare shall be guaranteed under the Constitution.

Article 23.—All the freedoms and rights enumerated in the preceding Articles may not be restricted by law, except for reasons of preventing infringement upon the freedoms of other persons, averting an imminent crisis, maintaining social order or advancing general welfare.

Article 24.—Any public functionary who, in violation of law, infringes upon the freedoms or rights of any person shall, in addition to being subject to disciplinary measures in accordance with law, be held accountable under the criminal and civil laws. The injured person may, in accordance with law, ask the State for indemnity.

CHAPTER III

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Article 25.—The National Assembly shall, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, exercise political powers on behalf of the whole body of citizens.

Article 26.—The National Assembly shall be organized with the following components:

(1) One delegate to be elected by every hsien, municipality or area of an equivalent status. In case its population exceeds 500,000, one additional delegate shall be elected for each additional 500,000. Areas of an equivalent status with the hsien or the municipality shall be prescribed by law.

(2) Delegates of Mongolia shall be elected four for each league and one for each special banner.

(3) The number of delegates to be elected by Tibet shall be prescribed by law.

(4) The number of delegates to be elected by various racial groups in the border regions shall be prescribed by law.

(5) The number of delegates to be elected by Chinese nationals residing abroad shall be prescribed by law.

(6) The number of delegates to be elected by occupational groups shall be prescribed by law.

(7) The number of delegates to be elected by women's organizations shall be prescribed by law.

Article 27.—The functions and powers of the National Assembly shall be as follows:

(1) Election of the President and the Vice-President.

(2) Recall of the President or the Vice-President.

(3) Amendment of the Constitution.

(4) Referendum on amendments to the Constitution proposed by the Legislative Yuan.

With respect to the exercise of the powers of initiative and referendum, in addition to the authority stipulated in the above-mentioned (3) and (4), the National Assembly shall formulate measures pertaining thereto and enforce them, after the said two powers shall have been exercised in one-half of the hsien and municipalities of the whole country.

Article 28.—Delegates to the National Assembly shall be elected every six years.

The term of office of the delegates to each National Assembly shall terminate on the day of convocation of the next National Assembly.

Incumbent government officials may not be elected delegates to the National Assembly in electoral areas where they hold office.

Article 29.—The National Assembly shall be summoned by the President to meet ninety days prior to the date of expiration of each presidential term.

Article 30.—The National Assembly may, in any of the following circumstances, convene an extraordinary session:

(1) When, in accordance with the provisions of Article 49 of the Constitution, a new President and a new Vice-President are to be elected.

(2) When, in accordance with a resolution of the Control Yuan, an impeachment of the President or the Vice-President is to be instituted.

(3) When, in accordance with a resolution of the Legislative Yuan, an amendment to the Constitution is to be proposed.

(4) When a meeting is requested by over two-fifths of the delegates to the National Assembly.

When an extraordinary session is to be called in accordance with the above-mentioned (1) and (2), the President of the Legislative Yuan shall issue the notice of convocation; when it is to be called in accordance with the above-mentioned (3) and (4), it shall be convened by the President of the Republic.

Article 31.—The National Assembly shall meet at the seat of the Central Government.

Article 32.—No delegate to the National Assembly shall be held responsible outside the Assembly for opinions expressed or for votes cast in the Assembly.

Article 33.—While the Assembly is in session, no delegate to the National Assembly shall, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto,* be arrested or detained without the permission of the National Assembly.

Article 34.—The organization of the National Assembly, the election and the recall of delegates to the National Assembly, and the procedure whereby the National Assembly is to carry out its functions shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER IV

The President

Article 35.—The President shall be the Head of the State and shall represent the Republic of China in foreign relations.

Article 36.—The President shall command the nation's land, sea and air forces.

Article 37.—The President shall, in accordance with law, promulgate laws and issue mandates with the counter-signature of the President of the Executive Yuan, or with counter-signatures of both the President of the Executive Yuan and of the heads of Ministries or Commissions concerned.

Article 38.—The President shall, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, exercise the powers of concluding treaties, declaring war, and making peace.

Article 39.—The President may, in accordance with law, declare martial law with the approval or confirmation of the Legislative Yuan. When the Legislative Yuan deems it necessary, it may, by resolution, request the President to terminate martial law.

Article 40.—The President shall, in accordance with law, exercise the powers of granting general amnesty, pardons, remission of sentences and restitution of civil rights.

Article 41.—The President shall, in accordance with law, appoint and remove civil and military officers.

Article 42.—The President may, in accordance with law, confer honors and award decorations.

Article 43.—In case of a natural calamity, an epidemic or a national financial or economic crisis that calls for emergency measures, the President, during the Legislative Yuan's recess, may, by resolution of the Executive Yuan Council and in accordance with the Emergency Decrees Act, issue an emergency decree proclaiming such measures as are necessary to cope with the situation. Such decree shall, within one month after issuance, be presented to the Legislative Yuan for confirmation; in case the Legislative Yuan withholds confirmation, the said decree shall immediately become null and void.

Article 44.—In case of any dispute between the various Yuan, unless there are relevant stipulations in the Constitution, the President may call a meeting of the Presidents of the Yuan concerned for consultation with a view to reaching an agreement.

Article 45.—Any citizen of the Republic of China having attained the age of forty years shall be eligible to the office of President or the Vice-President.

Article 46.—The election of the President and the Vice-President shall be prescribed by law.

Article 47.—The term of office of the President and of the Vice-President shall be six years. They may be elected for a second term.

Article 48.—The President shall, at the time of his inauguration, take the following oath:

"I do solemnly and sincerely swear before the people of the whole country that I shall observe the Constitution, faithfully perform my duties and strive to promote the people's welfare and defend the country. Under no circumstances shall I betray the people's trust. Should I break my oath, I shall submit myself to severe punishment by the State."

Article 49.—In the event of the President's office becoming vacant, the Vice-President shall succeed to the Presidency until the expiration of the original presidential term. In case the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency should both become vacant, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President and, in accordance with the provisions of Article 30 of the Constitution, convene an extraordinary session of the National Assembly to elect a new President and a new Vice-President, and the latter shall hold office until the completion of the term left unfinished by the preceding President.

In case the President should, due to any cause, become incapacitated, the Vice-President shall exercise the functions of his office. In case both the President and the Vice-President should become incapacitated, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President.

Article 50.—The President shall vacate his office on the day his term expires. If by that time the succeeding President has not yet been elected, or if the President-elect and the Vice-President-elect have not yet assumed office, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President.

Article 51.—The period during which the President of the Executive Yuan may exercise the functions of the President shall not exceed three months.

Article 52.—The President shall not, without having been recalled or having vacated his office, be liable to criminal prosecution unless he is charged with having committed acts of rebellion or treason.

CHAPTER V

Administration

Article 53.—The Executive Yuan shall be the highest administrative organ of the State.

Article 54.—The Executive Yuan shall have a President, a Vice-President, a number of heads of Ministries and Commissions and a number of ministers of state without portfolio.

Article 55.—The President of the Executive Yuan shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan.

If the President of the Executive Yuan should resign or otherwise vacate his office during the recess of the Legislative Yuan, the Vice-President of the Yuan shall exercise his functions, but the President of the Republic shall, within forty days, request a meeting of the Legislative Yuan to confirm his nominee.

Pending such confirmation by the Legislative Yuan, the Vice-President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President of the Yuan.

Article 56.—The Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions and the ministers of state without portfolio shall be appointed by the President of the Republic upon the recommendation of the President of the Executive Yuan.

Article 57.—The Executive Yuan shall be responsible to the Legislative Yuan in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) The Executive Yuan has the obligation to present to the Legislative Yuan its administrative policies and its administrative reports. Members of the Legislative Yuan have, during sessions of the Legislative Yuan, the right to interpellate the President and the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions of the Executive Yuan.

(2) If the Legislative Yuan does not concur in any important policy of the Executive Yuan, it may, by resolution, ask the Executive Yuan to alter such a policy. With respect to such resolution, the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, request the Legislative Yuan to reconsider it. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending Members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original resolution, the President of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

(3) If the Executive Yuan deems a statutory, budgetary or treaty bill passed by the Legislative Yuan difficult to carry out, it may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, request, within ten days after the delivery of the said resolution to the Executive Yuan, that the Legislative Yuan reconsider the same. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending Members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original resolution, the President of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

Article 58.—The Executive Yuan shall have an Executive Yuan Council to be composed of its President, Vice-President, heads of the various Ministries and the Commissions and ministers of state without portfolio, with the President of the Yuan as chairman.

Prior to submission to the Legislative Yuan of any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties or other important affairs, or concerning matters of common concern to the various Ministries and Commissions, the President and heads of the various Ministries and Commissions of the Executive Yuan shall present the said bill to the Executive Yuan Council for discussion and decision.

Article 59.—The Executive Yuan shall, three months before the beginning of every fiscal year, present to the Legislative Yuan the budget for the following fiscal year.

Article 60.—The Executive Yuan shall, within four months after the end of every fiscal year, present the budget statement to the Control Yuan.

Article 61.—The organization of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VI

LEGISLATION

Article 62.—The Legislative Yuan shall be the highest legislative organ of the State to be composed of popularly elected Members to exercise the legislative power on behalf of the people.

Article 63.—The Legislative Yuan shall have the power to decide upon any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties and other important affairs of the State.

Article 64.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be elected in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) Those elected by provinces and by municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan shall be five for each province or municipality with a population of less than 3,000,000. In case of a population exceeding 3,000,000, one additional Member shall be elected for each additional 1,000,000 persons.

(2) Those elected by Mongolian leagues and banners.

(3) Those elected by Tibet.

(4) Those elected by various racial groups in the border regions.

(5) Those elected by Chinese nationals residing abroad.

(6) Those elected by occupational groups.

The election of Members of the Legislative Yuan and the number of those to be elected in accordance with the above-mentioned (2) to (6) shall be prescribed by law.

The number of women to be elected in the above-mentioned categories shall be prescribed by law.

Article 65.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall serve a term of three years, and shall be eligible for re-election. The election of Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be completed not later than three months prior to the expiration of each term of office.

Article 66.—The Legislative Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President to be elected by and from among the Members.

Article 67.—The Legislative Yuan may organize various committees.

Such committees may invite government officials and private individuals concerned to be present at their meetings for consultation.

Article 68.—The Legislative Yuan shall hold two sessions every year, to be convened by itself. The first session shall last from February to the end of May, and the second session from September to the end of December. When necessary, a session may be extended.

Article 69.—In any of the following circumstances, the Legislative Yuan may hold an extraordinary session:

(1) At the request of the President of the Republic.

(2) Upon the petition of more than one-fourth of its Members.

Article 70.—The Legislative Yuan shall not make proposals to increase expenditures listed in the budget presented by the Executive Yuan.

Article 71.—At meetings of the Legislative Yuan, the Presidents of the various Yuan and the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions concerned may be in attendance to present their opinions.

Article 72.—Statutory bills passed by the Legislative Yuan shall be sent to the President of the Republic and to the Executive Yuan. The President shall, within ten days after their receipt, promulgate them. However, the President may proceed with them in accordance with provisions of Article 57 of the Constitution.

Article 73.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan shall be held responsible outside the Yuan for any utterances made or votes cast in the Yuan.

Article 74.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan may, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto*, be arrested or detained without permission of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 75.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan may concurrently hold a government post.

Article 76.—The organization of the Legislative Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VII

JUDICIARY

Article 77.—The Judicial Yuan shall be the highest judicial organ of the State and shall have jurisdiction over civil, criminal and administrative cases and over cases concerning disciplinary punishment of public functionaries.

Article 78.—The Judicial Yuan shall have the power to interpret the Constitution and also the power to unify the interpretation of laws and decrees.

Article 79.—The Judicial Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The Judicial Yuan shall have a number of Grand Justices to attend to matters stipulated in Article 78 of the Constitution, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

Article 80.—Judges shall be above party affiliations and shall, in accordance with law, hold trials independently and free of any interference.

Article 81.—Judges shall hold office for life. No judge may be removed from office unless he has been found guilty of criminal offenses or subjected to disciplinary punishment, or declared legally incompetent. No judge may, except in accordance with law, be suspended, transferred or have his salary reduced.

Article 82.—The organization of the Judicial Yuan and of the law courts of various grades shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VIII

EXAMINATION

Article 83.—The Examination Yuan shall be the highest examination organ of the State and shall attend to matters such as examination, appointment, registration and ranking, checking of records, salary scales, promotion and transfer, safeguarding of tenures, commendation, compensation, retirement, and pension.

Article 84.—The Examination Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President and a number of Members who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

Article 85.—In the selection of public functionaries, a system of competitive examination shall be enforced, quotas of candidates shall be prescribed severally according to provinces and areas, and examinations shall be held by regions. No person may be appointed to a public office unless he has qualified through examination.

Article 86.—The following qualifications shall be determined through examinations to be held by the Examination Yuan in accordance with law:

(1) Qualifications for appointment as public functionaries.

(2) Qualifications for practice in specialized professions and as technicians.

Article 87.—The Examination Yuan may, with respect to matters under its charge, present statutory bills to the Legislative Yuan.

Article 88.—Members of the Examination Yuan shall be above party affiliations and shall, in accordance with law, independently carry out their functions.

Article 89.—The organization of the Examination Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER IX

CONTROL

Article 90.—The Control Yuan shall be the highest organ of control of the State and shall exercise the powers of consent, impeachment, censure and auditing.

Article 91.—The Control Yuan shall be composed of Members to be elected by provincial and municipal councils, the local councils of Mongolia and Tibet, and Chinese nationals residing abroad. Their numbers shall be determined in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) Five Members from every province.

(2) Two Members from every municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(3) Eight Members from Mongolian leagues and banners.

(4) Eight Members from Tibet.

(5) Eight Members from Chinese nationals residing abroad.

Article 92.—The Control Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President, to be elected by and from among its Members.

Article 93.—Members of the Control Yuan shall serve a term of six years and shall be eligible for re-election.

Article 94.—When the Control Yuan exercises the power of consent in accordance with the Constitution, it shall do so by resolution of a majority of the attending Members.

Article 95.—The Control Yuan, in the exercise of its powers, may send for orders issued by the Executive Yuan and its Ministries and Commissions and for other relevant documents for perusal.

Article 96.—The Control Yuan, taking into account the functions of the Executive Yuan and its various Ministries and Commissions, may accordingly set up a number of committees to investigate their measures with the view to ascertaining

whether they have violated any law or have been derelict in the performance of their duties.

Article 97.—The Control Yuan may, on the basis of the investigations and resolutions of its committees, propose corrective measures and forward them to the Executive Yuan and its appropriate Ministries and Commissions with request that improvements be effected.

When the Control Yuan deems a public functionary in the Central or a local government derelict in the performance of duty or when it deems there has been violation of law, it may institute an indictment or an impeachment. If it is a criminal offense the case shall be turned over to a law court.

Article 98.—Any impeachment by the Control Yuan of a public functionary in the Central or a local government shall be instituted upon the proposal of more than one Member of the Control Yuan and the endorsement, after due consideration, of more than nine other Members.

Article 99.—In instituting impeachments of personnel of the Judicial Yuan or of the Examination Yuan for dereliction in the performance of duty or for violation of law, the provisions of Articles 95, 97 and 98 of the Constitution shall be applicable.

Article 100.—Any impeachment of the President or the Vice-President of the Republic by the Control Yuan shall be instituted upon the proposal of more than one-fourth, and the endorsement, after due consideration, of the majority of the Members of the Control Yuan, and the same shall be presented to the National Assembly.

Article 101.—No Member of the Control Yuan shall be held responsible outside the Yuan for opinions expressed or for votes cast in the Yuan.

Article 102.—No Member of the Control Yuan may, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto,* be arrested or detained without the permission of the Control Yuan.

Article 103.—No Member of the Control Yuan may concurrently hold a public office or engage in professional practices.

Article 104.—In the Control Yuan, there shall be an Auditor-General, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 105.—The Auditor-General shall, within three months after the presentation of the budget statement by the Executive Yuan, complete the auditing thereof in accordance with law, and submit an auditing report to the Legislative Yuan.

Article 106.—The organization of the Control Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER X

Powers of the Central and Local Governments

Article 107.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the Central Government:

(1) Foreign affairs.
(2) National defense and military affairs concerning national defense.
(3) Nationality law, and criminal, civil and commercial laws.
(4) Judicial organization.
(5) Aviation, national highways, State-owned railways, navigation, postal and telegraph services.
(6) Central Government finance and national revenues.
(7) Demarcation of national, provincial and hsien revenues.
(8) State-operated economic enterprises.
(9) Currency system and State banks.
(10) Weights and measures.
(11) Foreign trade policies.
(12) Financial and economic matters affecting foreigners or foreign countries.
(13) Other matters of the Central Government as stipulated in the Constitution.

Article 108.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the Central Government, which may delegate their execution to the provincial and hsien governments:

(1) General rules governing provincial and hsien self-government.
(2) Division of administrative areas.
(3) Forestry, industry and mining, and commerce.
(4) Educational system.
(5) Banking and stocks and commodities.
(6) Navigation and deep sea fishing enterprises.
(7) Public utilities.
(8) Cooperative enterprises.
(9) Water and land communication and transportation affecting two or more provinces.
(10) Water conservancy, waterways and agricultural and pastoral enterprises affecting two or more provinces.
(11) Registration and ranking, appointment, supervision and protection of officials in the Central and local governments.
(12) Land legislation.
(13) Labor legislation and other social legislation.
(14) Eminent domain.
(15) Census-taking and compilation of statistics.
(16) Immigration and land reclamation.
(17) Police system.
(18) Public health.
(19) Ordinary relief, compensation, and unemployment relief.
(20) Preservation of ancient books, articles and monuments of cultural value.

With respect to the above-mentioned matters, the provinces may enact separate laws and rules, provided these do not contravene national laws.

Article 109.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the provinces, which may delegate their execution to the hsien:

(1) Provincial education, public health, industries and communications.
(2) Management and disposal of provincial property.
(3) Administration of municipalities under provincial jurisdiction.
(4) Province-operated enterprises.
(5) Provincial cooperative enterprises.
(6) Provincial agricultural, forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and public works.
(7) Provincial finance and revenue.
(8) Provincial debts.
(9) Provincial banks.
(10) Enforcement of provincial police administration.
(11) Provincial charitable and public welfare enterprises.
(12) Other matters delegated to the provinces in accordance with national legislation.

Except as otherwise provided for by law, any of the above-mentioned matters which concern two or more provinces may be undertaken jointly by the provinces concerned.

When any province, in undertaking matters in (1) of this Article experiences financial difficulties, it may, by resolution of the Legislative Yuan, receive a subsidiary from the National Treasury.

Article 110.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the hsien:

(1) Hsien education, public health, industries and communications.
(2) Management and disposal of hsien property.
(3) Hsien-operated enterprises.
(4) Hsien co-operative enterprises.
(5) Hsien agriculture and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry, and public works.
(6) Hsien finance and revenue.
(7) Hsien debts.
(8) Hsien banks.
(9) Administration of hsien police and defense.
(10) Hsien charitable and public welfare enterprises.
(11) Other matters delegated in accordance with national legislation and the Provincial Self-Government Law.

Any of the above-mentioned matters covering more than two hsien may, except as otherwise provided for by law, be undertaken jointly by the hsien concerned.

Article 111.—Should there occur any matter not enumerated in Articles 107, 108, 109 and 110, the same shall fall within the jurisdiction of the Central Government if it is national in nature, of the province if it is provincial in nature, and of the hsien if it is hsien in nature. Any dispute over jurisdiction shall be settled by the Legislative Yuan.

CHAPTER XI

Local Government

Section 1

The Province

Article 112.—A province may convene a Provincial Assembly to enact, in accordance with the General Principles of Provincial and Hsien Self-Government, a Provincial Self-Government Law, provided the same does not contravene the Constitution.

The organization of the Provincial Assembly and the election of the Representatives shall be prescribed by law.

Article 113.—The Provincial Self-Government Law shall, *inter alia,* provide for the following:

(1) In each of the provinces, there shall be a Provincial Council. Members of the Provincial Council shall be elected by the people of the province.
(2) In each of the provinces there shall be a Provincial Government with a Provincial Governor, to be elected by the people of the province.
(3) Relationship between the province and the hsien.

The legislative power of the province shall be exercised by the Provincial Council.

Article 114.—The Provincial Self-Government Law, after enactment, shall be immediately submitted to the Judicial Yuan. The Judicial Yuan, if it deems any part thereof unconstitutional, shall declare null and void such Article or Articles as contravene the Constitution.

Article 115.—In the enforcement of the Provincial Self-Government Law, should a serious obstacle arise on account of any of its articles, the Judicial Yuan

shall first summon the parties concerned to present their views. Then the Presidents of the Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan and Control Yuan shall form themselves into a committee, with the President of the Judicial Yuan as chairman, to propose formulas for a solution.

Article 116.—Provincial laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws shall be null and void.

Article 117.—In case of any doubt as to whether or not a provincial law or regulation contravenes a national law, an interpretation thereon shall be made by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 118. — The self-government of municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

Article 119.—The local self-government system of the Mongolian leagues and banners shall be prescribed by law.

Article 120.—The self-government system of Tibet shall be safeguarded.

Section 2

The Hsien

Article 121.—The hsien shall enforce hsien self-government.

Article 122.—The hsien may convene a hsien assembly and enact, in accordance with the General Principles of Provincial and Hsien Self-Government, a Hsien Self-Government Law, provided the same does not contravene the Constitution or the Provincial Self-Government Law.

Article 123.—The people of the hsien shall, in accordance with law, exercise the rights of initiative and referendum in matters pertaining to hsien self-government, as well as the rights of election and recall of the magistrate and other hsien self-government officers.

Article 124.—In each hsien, there shall be a hsien council. Members of the hsien council shall be elected by the people of the hsien.

The legislative power of the hsien shall be exercised by the hsien council.

Article 125.—Hsien laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws or provincial laws and regulations shall be null and void.

Article 126.—In each hsien, there shall be a hsien government with a hsien magistrate, to be elected by the people of the hsien.

Article 127.—The hsien magistrate shall attend to the enforcement of hsien self-government and to the execution of matters delegated by the Central and provincial governments.

Article 128.—The provisions governing the hsien shall apply *mutais mutandis* to the municipality.

CHAPTER XII

Suffrage, Recall, Initiative and Referendum

Article 129.—The elections stipulated in the Constitution, except as otherwise provided for by the Constitution, shall be by universal, equal, and direct suffrage and by secret ballot.

Article 130.—Any citizen of the Republic of China having attained the age of twenty years shall have the right of suffrage in accordance with law. Except as otherwise provided for by law and by the Constitution, any citizen having attained the age of twenty-three years shall have the right to be elected to office in accordance with law.

Article 131.—All candidates in the elections prescribed in the Constitution shall openly campaign for election.

Article 132.—Intimidation and material inducements shall be strictly forbidden in elections. Election disputes shall be settled by the courts.

Article 133.—After being elected, a person may, in accordance with law, be recalled by his constituency.

Article 134.—In the elections, the minimum number of women to be elected shall be decided upon, and measures pertaining thereto shall be prescribed by law.

Article 135.—Regarding the number and election of Representatives for interior areas where a different mode of living obtains, necessary measures shall be prescribed by law.

Article 136.—The exercise of the rights of initiative and referendum shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER XIII

Fundamental National Policies

Section 1

National Defense

Article 137.—The National defense of the Republic of China shall have as its object the safeguarding of national security and the preservation of world peace.

The organization of national defense shall be prescribed by law.

Article 138.—The land, sea and air forces of the whole country shall be above personal, regional or party affiliations, and shall be loyal to the State and protect the people.

Article 139.—No political party or faction or private individual may make use of armed force as an instrument in the struggle for political power.

Article 140.—No person in active military service may concurrently hold a civil office.

Section 2

Foreign Policy

Article 141.—In its external relations, the Republic of China shall, in keeping with a spirit of independence and on the basis of the principles of equality and reciprocity, cultivate good neighborliness with other nations, respect treaties and the United Nations Charter, protect the rights and interests of Chinese nationals residing abroad, promote international cooperation, and advance the cause of righteousness among nations and of world peace.

Section 3

National Economy

Article 142.—National economy shall be based on the Principle of the People's Livelihood and seek to effect equalization of land ownership and control over private capital in order to attain fair distribution and sufficiency in national economy.

Article 143.—All land within the territory of the Republic of China shall belong to the whole body of citizens. Private ownership of land, acquired by the people in accordance with law, shall be protected and restricted by law. Land owned by private individuals shall be liable to taxation, or government purchase, according to its value.

Mineral deposits and natural power which may be economically utilized for the public benefit shall belong to the State and shall in no way be affected by the people's acquisition of the right of ownership over the land in question.

If the value of any piece of land shall have increased not through the exertion of labor or the employment of capital, the State shall levy thereon an increment tax, the proceeds of which shall be used for public welfare.

In the distribution of land and adjustment of title deeds the State shall, as a matter of principle, assist tiller-owners and persons who make use of the land themselves, and shall also regulate the size of land appropriate for cultivation and other purposes.

Article 144.—Public utilities and other enterprises of a monopolistic nature shall, as a matter of principle, be under public operation. They may, if permitted by law, be operated by the people.

Article 145.—With respect to private wealth and privately-operated enterprises, the State shall restrict them by law if they are deemed prejudicial to a balanced development of the national economy.

Cooperative enterprises shall receive the encouragement and assistance of the State.

Private productive enterprises and foreign trade shall receive the encouragement, guidance and protection of the State.

Article 146.—The State shall, by the use of scientific technique, undertake water conservancy projects, increase the productivity of land, improve agricultural conditions, plan the utilization of land, and develop agricultural resources in order to hasten the industrialization of agriculture.

Article 147.—The Central Government, in order to attain a balanced economic development of the provinces, shall give appropriate aid to economically poor provinces.

The provinces, in order to attain a balanced economic development of the hsien, shall give appropriate aid to economically poor hsien.

Article 148.—Within the territory of the Republic of China, goods of all kinds shall be permitted to move freely from place to place.

Article 149.—Financial institutions shall, in accordance with law, be subject to State control.

Article 150.—The State shall establish throughout the country special financial institutions to aid the unemployed.

Article 151.—With respect to Chinese nationals residing abroad, the State shall foster and protect the development of their economic enterprises.

Section 4

Social Security

Article 152.—The State shall give adequate opportunity of employment to people who are capable of work.

Article 153.—The State, in order to improve the livelihood of laborers and farmers and to improve their productive skill, shall enact laws and carry out policies for their protection.

Women and children engaged in labor shall, according to their age and physical condition, be accorded special protection.

Article 154.—Capital and labor shall, in accordance with the principle of harmony and cooperation, promote productive enterprises. Mediation and arbitration of

disputes between capital and labor shall be prescribed by law.

Article 155.—The State, in order to promote social welfare, shall put into operation a Social Insurance System. To the aged, the infirm and the disabled among the people who are unable to earn a living, and to victims of natural calamities, the State shall give appropriate assistance and relief.

Article 156.—The State, in order to consolidate the foundation of national existence and development, shall protect motherhood and carry out the policy of promoting the welfare of women and children.

Article 157.—The State, in order to improve national health, shall extend throughout the country public health and medical services and the State Medicine System.

SECTION 5

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Article 158.—The nation's educational and cultural services shall have as their aim the development among the citizens of national characteristics, a democratic spirit, traditional morality, good physique, scientific knowledge and the ability to earn a living.

Article 159.—All citizens shall have an equal opportunity to receive education.

Article 160.—All children of school age, to wit, those from six to twelve years, shall receive free primary education. Those from poor families shall be supplied with textbooks at the expense of the government.

All citizens above school age who have not received primary education shall receive such education free of charge, and shall likewise be supplied with textbooks at the expense of the government.

Article 161.—Governments of various grades shall create scholarships to assist students of good scholastic standing and of exemplary conduct who lack the means to continue their school education.

Article 162.—All public and private educational and cultural institutions in the country shall, in accordance with law, be subject to State supervision.

Article 163.—The State shall pay due attention to the balanced development of education in different regions and shall promote social education in order to raise the cultural standard of the citizens in general. The National Treasury shall give cash grants to border regions and economically poor areas to help them meet their educational and cultural expenses. The Central Government may itself undertake the more important educational and cultural enterprises in such regions or give them financial assistance.

Article 164.—Expenditures for educational programs, scientific studies and cultural services shall be, in respect of the Central Government, not less than 15 percent of the total national budget; in respect of the provinces, not less than 25 percent of the total provincial budget; and in respect of the municipality or hsien, not less than 35 percent of the total municipal or hsien budget. Educational and cultural foundations established in accordance with law shall, together with their property, be protected.

Article 165.—The State shall safeguard the livelihood of those who work in the fields of education, sciences and arts, and shall, in accord with the development of the national economy, increase their remuneration from time to time.

Article 166.—The State shall encourage scientific discoveries and inventions and shall protect monuments and articles of historical, cultural or artistic value.

Article 167.—The State shall give encouragement or subsidies to the following enterprises or individuals:

(1) Private educational enterprises in the country which have a good record.

(2) Chinese educational enterprises abroad which have a good record.

(3) Persons who have made discoveries or inventions in the fields of learning and technology.

(4) Persons who have rendered long and meritorious service to the cause of education.

Article 168.—The State shall accord legal protection to the status of racial groups in the border regions, and shall give them special assistance in their local self-government undertakings.

Article 169.—The State shall positively undertake and foster the development of education, cultural services, communications, water conservancy, public health and other economic and social enterprises for the benefit of racial groups in the border regions. With respect to the utilization of land, the State shall, after taking into account local climatic conditions and the nature of the soil, and in the light of the living habits of the local people, adopt measures to protect the land and to assist in its development.

CHAPTER XIV

ENFORCEMENT AND AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

Article 170.—The term "Law," as used in the Constitution, denotes any legislative bill that shall have been passed by the Legislative Yuan and promulgated by the President.

Article 171.—Laws that are in contravention of the Constitution shall be null and void.

In case of any doubt as to whether or not a law is in contravention of the Constitution, interpretation thereof shall be made by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 172.—Ordinances that are in contravention of the Constitution or laws shall be null and void.

Article 173.—Interpretation of the Constitution shall be done by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 174.—Amendments to the Constitution shall be made in accordance with one of the following procedures:

(1) An amendment may be made upon the proposal of one-fifth of the total number of the delegates to the National Assembly and by a resolution of three-fourths of the delegates present at a meeting having a quorum of two-thirds of the entire Assembly.

(2) An amendment may be drawn up and submitted to the National Assembly for referendum upon the proposal of one-fourth of the Members of the Legislative Yuan and by a resolution of three-fourths of the Members present at a meeting having a quorum of three-fourths of the Members of the entire Yuan.

Such a proposed amendment to the Constitution shall be published at least six months before the National Assembly convenes.

Article 175.—Whenever necessary, enforcement procedures in regard to any matter prescribed in the Constitution shall be separately provided by law.

The preparatory procedure for the enforcement of the Constitution shall be decided upon by the same National Assembly which shall have adopted the Constitution.

TEMPORARY PROVISIONS DURING THE PERIOD OF NATIONAL CRISIS

(Adopted by the National Assembly on April 18, 1948)

In accordance with the procedure stipulated in Paragraph 1 of Article 174 of the Constitution, the following temporary provisions to be effective during the period of national crisis are hereby enacted:

The President during the period of national crisis may, by resolution of the Executive Yuan, take emergency measures to avert imminent danger to the security of the State or of the people or to cope with any serious financial or economic crisis, without being subject to restrictions stipulated in Article 39 or Article 43 of the Constitution.

The emergency measures mentioned in the preceding paragraph may be modified or abrogated by the Legislative Yuan in accordance with Paragraph 2 of Article 57 of the Constitution.

The period of national crisis may be declared terminated by the President on his own initiative or at the request of the Legislative Yuan.

The President shall call an extraordinary session of the First National Assembly not later than December 25, 1950 to discuss all proposals pertaining to amendments to the Constitution. If at that time the period of national crisis has not yet been declared terminated in accordance with the foregoing provisions, the extraordinary session of the National Assembly shall decide whether or not the temporary provisions are to remain in force or to be abrogated.

CHAPTER 7

GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

The existing Chinese Government derives its mandate from the National Assembly, which, according to the constitution, exercises political powers on behalf of the people.

The National Assembly is composed of 3,045 delegates elected in November, 1947, on the basis of regional and vocational representation. Its powers are: (1) election of the President and the Vice-President; (2) recall of the President or the Vice-President; (3) amendment of the constitution, and (4) ratification of constitutional amendments proposed by the Legislative Yuan.

Delegates to the National Assembly serve for six years. They meet in the national capital 90 days prior to expiration of the President's term of office. Extraordinary sessions may be called (1) to hold a supplementary presidential election; (2) to institute an impeachment; (3) to act on constitutional amendments proposed by the Legislative Yuan, and (4) upon the petition of more than two-fifths of its delegates.

The first session of the Assembly was held in Nanking and lasted 34 days beginning March 29, 1948. On April 19, the Assembly elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek President of the Republic of China by 2,430 out of 2,761 votes. Chu Cheng, the only other candidate, received 296 votes. Thirty-five ballots were declared void.

The vice-presidential election required four ballotings for six candidates: Sun Fo, then president of the Legislative Yuan; General Li Tsung-jen, director of the President's office in Peiping; General Cheng Chien, director of the President's office in Hankow; Yu Yu-jen, president of the Control Yuan; Mo Teh-hui, non-partisan state councillor; and Hsu Fu-lin, a Democratic Socialist Party leader. The final ballot took place on April 29. General Li won with 1,438 votes against Dr. Sun's 1,295. The other candidates were eliminated in the first three ballots. General Li was thus elected China's first vice-president under the new constitution.

President Chiang and Vice-President Li were inaugurated on May 20, 1948.

From April, 1947, to May, 1948, China was governed by a multi-party state council. This interim administration came into being exactly 19 years after the national government was established by the Kuomintang in Nanking. In this highest policy-making body, the Kuomintang had 12 seats; Democratic Socialists, four; the Young China party, four; and non-partisans, four. The presidents of the five Yuan were ex-officio members. The Chinese Communist party and their close associates in the Democratic League refused to join the state council, which was to have 40 members.

The executive branch, headed by General Chang Chun, had 14 ministers, three commission chairmen, and seven ministers without portfolio. The party line-up in this cabinet was as follows: Kuomintang, 14; Young China party, four; Democratic Socialists, two; and non-partisans, four. Representatives of the different groups were likewise elected to the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

THE PRESIDENCY

The President of the Republic of China, under the new constitution, wields such powers and performs such functions as are usually granted to the chief executive of a republic. He is the head of state and represents the nation in official foreign relations. He commands the land, sea and air forces; and, subject to the restraints of the Legislative Yuan, he exercises the powers of conclusion of treaties, declaration of war, and making of peace. Except as otherwise stipulated by law, he appoints and removes civil and military officers. He exercises the power of granting general amnesties, pardons, remission of sentences and restitution of civil rights in accordance with law. Also according to

law, he confers honors and awards decorations. His tenure of office is six years and is eligible only for a second term.

The temporary provisions adopted by the first session of the first National Assembly on April 18, 1948 granted the President emergency powers in the period of national crisis. (See text Chapter VI)

In the *Tsungtungfu* (President's Office), which was established to enable the President to discharge his duties in accordance with law, there are a secretary-general and a personal chief-of-staff of the President. Under them are six bureaus to attend to routine functions in the *Tsungtungfu*.

The organic law of the *Tsungtungfu* also provides that it shall have a number of *Chihcheng* (senior political advisors) to be chosen by the President from among persons of outstanding achievements and reputation, who may make recommendations to the President on major policies concerning affairs of the state.

In the *Tsungtungfu*, there are three committees, namely, the National Policy Advisory committee, the Military Strategy Advisory committee and the Decorations Examination committee. The Academia Sinica (National Academy of China), the National Institute of History, and the Sun Yat-sen Mausoleum committee come under the *Tsungtungfu*.

THE FIVE YUAN

The new Chinese Constitution is in essence based on Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles and the Five-Power System of Government. In his "Principle on the People's Rights," Dr. Sun pointed out that in order to exercise effective control over the government, the people should possess four political rights—namely, suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum. In the local government, these four rights are to be exercised directly by the people; while in the Central Government they are exercised indirectly through the National Assembly.

As to the system of government, Dr. Sun advocated that in addition to the executive, legislative and judicial powers, there should be the powers of examination and of control. The former refers to a system of open, competitive examination for aspirants to public offices, professional practitioners and technical personnel; the latter, a system of impeachment and of supervision of public functionaries. The five branches of the Chinese Government, which are in the form of five *Yuan* (councils), are independent of though coordinated with one another.

THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Under the new constitution, the Executive Yuan is the highest administrative organ of the state. It has a president, a vice-president, 15 ministers, three commission heads and seven ministers without portfolio. The president of the Executive Yuan, whose position is comparable to that of a premier in other constitutional democracies, is appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan. The vice-president, heads of the various ministries and commissions and ministers without portfolio are appointed by the President of the Republic upon the recommendation of the president of the Executive Yuan. They form the Executive Yuan Council with the yuan president as chairman.

The 15 ministries and three commissions are as follows:*

(1) Ministry of the Interior;
(2) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
(3) Ministry of National Defense;
(4) Ministry of Finance;
(5) Ministry of Education;
(6) Ministry of Justice;
(7) Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
(8) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
(9) Ministry of Communications;
(10) Ministry of Social Affairs;
(11) Ministry of Water Conservancy;
(12) Ministry of Land;
(13) Ministry of Health;
(14) Ministry of Food;
(15) Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics;
(16) National Resources Commission;
(17) Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission;
(18) Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission.

Directly under the Executive Yuan is a Government Information Office. The Executive Yuan, upon resolution by the Executive Yuan Council and the Legislative Yuan, may establish new ministries, commissions or other subordinate organs or abolish and amalgamate the existing ones. When necessary, it may also set up special committees.

Each ministry has a minister, a political vice-minister and an administrative vice-minister; each commission, a chairman and a vice-chairman; and the Government Information Office, a director and one or two deputy-directors. Weekly

* They were reduced to eight ministries and two commissions in October, 1949, because of expansion of communist control on the mainland.

meetings of the Executive Yuan Council are attended by all ministers with or without portfolio.

The duty of the Executive Yuan is to direct, coordinate and keep under constant review the work of its ministries, commissions and other subordinate organs, and either directly or through them, to exercise general supervision over the administration of the provinces and special municipalities. It also has the duty to regulate the inter-relations between the various ministries and commissions, and to examine their budgets, appointments and policies. Pending the establishment of local self-governments, it is to supervise the provincial and special municipal governments, review their progress, issue instructions on matters which they cannot decide for themselves, eliminate the overlapping of functions and prevent the shifting of responsibility.

In the discharge of his duties, the president of the Executive Yuan is assisted by a secretary-general and a deputy secretary-general who, with the assistance of secretaries and counsellors, dispose of routine matters. Important questions are always reserved for discussion at the Executive Yuan Council meetings. It is stipulated in the constitution that before submitting to the Legislative Yuan any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning the declaration of martial law, granting of general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties or other important affairs, or matters of common concern to the various ministries and commissions, the Executive Yuan shall present the said bill to the Executive Yuan Council for discussion and decision.

According to the constitution, the president of the Executive Yuan is responsible to the Legislative Yuan in the following manner:

(1) The Executive Yuan is required to submit to the Legislative Yuan its administrative policies and reports. Members of the Legislative Yuan, at its sessions, have the right to interpellate the president and the heads of the various ministries and commissions of the Executive Yuan.

(2) If the Legislative Yuan does not concur in any important policy of the Executive Yuan, it may, by resolution, ask the Executive Yuan to alter it. However, the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, ask the Legislative Yuan for its reconsideration. If after a reconsideration two-thirds of the attending members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original resolution, the president of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

(3) If the Executive Yuan deems a resolution passed by the Legislative Yuan or a statutory, budgetary or treaty bill too difficult to carry out, it may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, aks the Legislative Yuan for a reconsideration within ten days after the delivery of the said resolution to the Executive Yuan. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending legislators uphold the original resolution, the president of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

The Legislative Yuan, the highest legislative organ of the land, has 773 popularly elected members. It has a president and a vice-president elected by and from among its members, who serve a term of three years and are eligible for re-election.

Members of the present Legislative Yuan were elected in January, 1948. A total of 622 members was elected on a regional basis; 62 were chosen by Chinese nationals residing abroad and by those living in Tibet, Mongolia and other border regions, and 89 by various vocational groups.

As it is now constituted, the Legislative Yuan has 21 committees in charge of (1) domestic affairs and local self-government, (2) foreign affairs, (3) national defense, (4) economic affairs and national resources, (5) finance and banking, (6) budget, (7) education and culture, (8) agriculture, forestry and water conservancy, (9) communications, (10) social affairs, (11) labor, (12) land administration, (13) public health, (14) frontier affairs, (15) overseas Chinese affairs, (16) maritime affairs, (17) food administration, (18) civil code, (19) criminal code, (20) commercial code, and (21) law codification.

Each of these committees has an unspecified number of members. Each member of the Legislative Yuan may serve on as many as three committees at the same time.

The Legislative Yuan has the power to decide upon any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, ment officials as well as private citizens general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties and other important affairs of the state. At its meetings the presidents of the various yuan concerned and the heads of the various ministries and commissions may be

enjoined to answer questions or to present their views on bills under discussion. Its various committees may summon government to appear at their meetings for interpellation and consultation.

According to the constitution, the Legislative Yuan shall hold two regular sessions a year, to be convened by itself. The first session shall last from February to the end of May, and the second session from September to the end of December. Whenever necessary, a session may be extended. It may convene an extraordinary session at the request of the President of the Republic or upon the petition of more than one-fourth of its own members.

Bills passed by the Legislative Yuan are sent to the President of the Republic and to the Executive Yuan. The President shall, within 10 days after their receipt, promulgate them. In case of a difference of opinion concerning questions of major policy and legislation, the president of the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, ask the Legislative Yuan for a reconsideration. If the latter upholds its earlier resolution by a two-thirds vote at a meeting attended by three-fourths of its entire membership, the president of the Executive Yuan must either abide by the resolution or resign.

Bills presented to the Legislative Yuan are first examined by the relevant committees before they are brought up before the full yuan meeting for deliberation. In case of an emergency, the bills go directly to a yuan meeting of the whole. Bills initiated by its own members are first discussed by a yuan meeting of the whole and usually goes through three readings. The first reading is more or less a formal procedure. The second reading is more important because then discussions and debates take place. At the third reading, the discussion and amendments are limited to the phraseology of the articles and clauses or to other technicalities. Finally a vote is taken. A simple majority of the members present decides the issue. In case of a tie, the presiding officer casts the deciding vote. The president usually presides. In case he is absent, the vice-president acts on his behalf.

The Legislative Yuan has been one of the five branches of the Chinese Government since 1928. Until its reorganization in May, 1948, it exercised limited powers. It had the power to deliberate on national budgets, general amnesty, declarations of war, the negotiation of peace and other important affairs of the state. Basic policy in these matters, however, were decided by the Kuomintang's Political Committee before the war, by the Supreme National Defense Council during the war, and by a State Council in the first three years after the war. Whenever a bill was introduced, the old Legislative Yuan could only change its contents, but not its principles. On matters of foreign policy and treaty-making, the Legislative Yuan was only an advisory body on technicalities and had no power to make final decisions.

THE JUDICIAL YUAN

The Judicial Yuan is the highest judicial organ of the state and has jurisdiction over the enforcement of civil, criminal and administrative laws and over disciplinary cases involving public functionaries. It has a president and a vice-president appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The president of the Judicial Yuan is assisted by a secretary-general in the disposal of Yuan affairs and supervision of subordinate officials, and by eight counsellors in the drafting of bills and decrees.

The Judicial Yuan is composed of a Council of Grand Justices, a Supreme Court, an Administrative Court and a Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The Council of Grand Justices, over which the president of the Yuan presides, has 17 members appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan. The Grand Justices are vested with the power to interpret the constitution and to unify the interpretations of laws and decrees. By September, 1948, 12 Grand Justices had been duly appointed.

The Ministry of Justice, which used to be a part of the yuan, was transferred to the Executive Yuan in January, 1943, following the abrogation of extraterritoriality once enjoyed by foreign nationals in China.

Because of their eminent position, the organic law of the Judicial Yuan is most specific and exacting regarding the qualifications of the Grand Justices. To qualify for office, one must have served as a Supreme Court judge for at least 10 years, or as a Legislative Yuan member for at least nine years, or as a judge in the Permanent Court of International Justice, or must have written authoritative works on public law or comparative law. Other qualifications which count toward an appointment are experience in teaching courses of jurisprudence in national universities for at least 10 years, experience in the practice of law, or in political affairs. Those qualifying under any one

group of prerequisites should not exceed one-third of the total number of the Grand Justices. The Grand Justices serve a term of nine years.

On September 16, 1948, the Judicial Yuan announced a set of regulations governing the Council of Grand Justices which specify, among other things, that at least a majority of the Grand Justices must be present to constitute a quorum for business. All resolutions must also be approved by a majority of the attending Grand Justices.

The regulations further provide that any resolution pertaining to the interpretation of the constitution or concerning cases in which laws or local self-government laws are found to be in conflict with the national charter must have the approval of more than one-half of the entire council. Any central or local organ may request an interpretation of a point in law, whether it be a point in the application of the constitution or on a law or decree in contravention of the constitution.

From 1945 to June, 1948, the Judicial Yuan disposed of 1,295 cases involving the interpretation of laws and decrees. Parties requesting such interpretations included judicial organs and representative bodies of the people. Most of the points in dispute concerned criminal laws and regulations.

(For details on Chinese courts and prisons, see chapter on "Judicial Affairs and Police").

THE EXAMINATION YUAN

The Examination Yuan is entrusted with the power of conducting civil service examinations and of determining the qualifications of professional practitioners and technical personnel. Its president, vice-president and 19 commissioners are appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The Examination Yuan Council, which is composed of the president and the vice-president of the Yuan and the commissioners, has overall charge of matters pertaining to examinations. The commissioners are independent of party affiliations and, in accordance with law, have independence in the exercise of their functions. Their term of office is six years.

The Examination Yuan has two organs, namely, the Ministry of Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel. Each is headed by a minister and two vice-ministers. The former attends to matters pertaining to the examination of public functionaries, professional practitioners and technical personnel. The latter is in charge of registering public functionaries, checking their service records, determining their qualifications for proper ranking and promotion, demotion, transfer, discharge, service security, and retirement.

There are three kinds of examinations: the high examination, the ordinary examination, and special examination. The Ministry of Examination is in charge of all administrative work concerning these examinations. When an examination is about to take place, two special organs are set up: a supervisory committee to prepare questions, to grade examination papers and to pick the successful candidates; and a business department to look after routine affairs such as arranging examination halls and the custody of examination papers.

The ordinary examination is conducted once or twice a year in the national capital, in the various provinces, or in regions designated by the Examination Yuan. The high examination takes place either once a year or once every two years in the national capital and in such regions as may be designated by the Examination Yuan. Special examinations are held occasionally to meet the demand of certain specific services under the central or local governments. Successful candidates are referred to the Ministry of Personnel for registration and appointment.

The difference between the ordinary and high examinations lies in the fact that the former is to select civil servants for delegated appointments, while the latter is to select officials of recommended appointments.*

The number of persons who have passed public examinations can be seen from the table on page 161.

Any citizen who is in good physical condition, has not been deprived of his civil rights, has not misappropriated public funds, is not facing corruption charges, and is not addicted to opium or other narcotics, is entitled to participation in civil service examinations. However, more specific qualifications are required for special examinations. For instance, candidates for the ordinary examination, besides meeting the above general qualifications, must fulfill one of the following prerequisites:

(1) Graduation from a government or a private middle school approved by the government and must have its diploma;

(2) An education equivalent to that of the above-mentioned middle school, and

* Appointments in the civil branch of the Chinese Government are in the following orders: special, selected, recommended and delegated.

Kind of Examinations		Successful Candidates
Examination of Candidates for Public Elective Posts (1941-47)		2,733,738
1st Class	583,124	
2nd Class	2,150,614	
Examination of Candidates for Government Appointment (1931-1947)		155,691
High Examination	3,746	
Ordinary Examination	5,352	
Special Examination	146,593	
Examination of Professional and Technical Personnel (February, 1942-47)		35,536
Lawyers	1,775	
Accountants	1,167	
Agricultural Technicians	1,045	
Industrial Technicians	2,478	
Mining Technicians	58	
Medical Personnel	11,441	
Herb Doctors	17,572	
Total		2,924,965

Source: Examination Yuan

must pass the regional preliminary test;

(3) Service as a hired clerk for the government for a period of not less than three years.

In regard to higher examination, one of the following prerequisites will suffice:

(1) Graduation from a college or technical school of university standing (either in China or abroad) approved by the Ministry of Education;

(2) An education equivalent to that stated in (1);

(3) Technical knowledge equivalent to the above gained through experience as indicated in writing, which has been approved by the Ministry of Examination;

(4) Successfully passing the ordinary examination four years previously, or by a delegated appointment, or fulfillment of a similar post for not less than three years.

The Examination Law for Technical Personnel, promulgated by the National Government on September 24, 1942, applies to professional and technical personnel of the following five categories:

(1) Lawyers and accountants;

(2) Agricultural, industrial and mining technicians;

(3) Doctors, pharmacists, dentists, veterinarians, midwives, nurses, and assistant pharmacists;

(4) Maritime and river navigators, steamship pilots and aircraft pilots;

(5) Other professional and technical men and women, who, according to law, must have government certificates.

THE CONTROL YUAN

The Control Yuan is the highest supervisory organ of the state and exercises the powers of consent, impeachment, censure and auditing. It is composed of 223 members elected by provincial and municipal councils, the local district councils of Mongolia and Tibet and overseas Chinese communities.* Its president and vice-president are elected by and from among its members, whose term of office is six years, and are eligible for re-election. During their term of office, members of the Control Yuan are not allowed to hold any other public office or to participate in private practice.

In exercising its right of consent to the appointments of the presidents and the vice-presidents of the Examination Yuan and the Judicial Yuan, 17 Grand Justices and 19 Examination Commissioners, the Control Yuan decides by a majority vote of the attending members. In exercising the power of impeachment, the Control Yuan may make inquiries and look into the files of government organs.

Public functionaries of all ranks, guilty of a breach of law or dereliction of duty, come within the power of impeachment of the Control Yuan. When the Control Yuan finds a public functionary in the central or local government to be guilty

* The allotment of seats in the Control Yuan is as follows: each province, five; each municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the central government, two; Mongolian Leagues and Banners, eight; Tibet, eight; and Chinese nationals residing abroad, eight.

of dereliction of duty or to have violated a law, it may propose corrective measures or institute an impeachment. If the criminal law is involved, the case will be turned over to a law court.

The Control Yuan has 10 committees. They are: domestic affairs and land administration, foreign relations and overseas Chinese affairs, national defense, finance and food, economic affairs and national resources, education, communications, judicial affairs, social affairs and public health, and Mongolian and Tibetan affairs. They are to check on the various government organs to see whether they have failed in their duties or committed any act in violation of law. On the basis of the investigations and the resolutions of its committees, the Control Yuan may propose corrective measures to the Executive Yuan and its ministries and commissions concerned, with the request that improvements be effected. If a criminal law is involved, the case will be turned over to a law court.

According to the constitution, any impeachment of a public functionary in the central or local government should be instituted upon the recommendation of more than one member of the Control Yuan and endorsed by at least nine or more members. An impeachment of the President or the Vice-President of the Republic should be instituted upon the proposal of more than one-fourth of the entire membership of the Control Yuan and subject to the approval of a clear majority. The impeachment must be brought before the National Assembly for deliberation.

The country is divided into 16 supervisory districts, each administered by three commissioners elected by and from among members of the Control Yuan. They are: (1) Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, (2) Honan, Shantung, (3) Shansi, Shensi, Suiyuan, (4) Yunnan, Kweichow, (5) Kwangtung, Kwangsi, (6) Hupeh, Hunan, (7) Anhwei, Kiangsi, (8) Fukien, Taiwan, (9) Kiangsu, Chekiang, (10) Hopei, Jehol, Chahar, (11) Szechwan, Sikang, (12) Liaoning, Antung, Liaopei, (13) Sinkiang, (14) Kirin, Sunkiang, Hokiang, (15) Nunkiang, Heilungkiang, Hingan, (16) Tibet.

Individual members of the Control Yuan may bring written charges against any functionary. Such a charge must be accompanied by a statement of the case and supporting evidence. Upon receipt of such a charge nine members of the Control Yuan are assigned to investigate. If a majority agree to the charges, the accused is either disciplined by competent authorities or tried according to law. If a majority adjudges the accused innocent, and if the supervisory member of the Control Yuan, who is the plaintiff, disagrees, the Control Yuan may assign nine other supervisory members to review the case and make a final decision. The president of the Control Yuan has no right to interfere in such decisions.

The supervisory members may either base their impeachment charges on their own information or on accusations of the people. Complaints may also be lodged by any government office against any public official. In either case, the Control Yuan will appoint nine members to conduct an investigation.

Although the Control Yuan has power to impeach any public functionary, it possesses no judicial power. When an impeachment is instituted, its prosecution is referred either to disciplinary or judicial authorities for action according to the nature of the offense. The president of the Control Yuan is responsible only for the administrative work of the Yuan. He cannot interfere with the discharge of duties by the individual members of the Yuan.

Power of Audit

The Control Yuan exercises power of audit through the Ministry of Audit, which has 12 provincial departments which enjoy a status similar to that of supervisory commissioners' offices. It also maintains auditing offices in all governmental organs which deal with financial matters. The power of audit includes (1) supervising the execution of budgets, (2) examining orders for receipts and disbursements, (3) checking preliminary and final accounts, and (4) investigating questionable financial procedures.

The auditors have the power of investigation, before and after public money is spent. The ministry, with the assistance of provincial auditing departments and visiting auditors, may select any government office for supervision and auditing. They have the right to demand the surrender of books, vouchers, and documents at any time. Before payments can be made orders issued by financial organs for the payment of funds, and receipts and requisition statements of all government organs must be signed by the auditors in accordance with their budgetary estimates.

As the Ministry of Audit functions under the jurisdiction of the Control Yuan, any breach of law, negligence of duty, or irregularities in financial matters must be brought to the attention of the Yuan for impeachment or other disciplinary action.

Accomplishments of the Control Yuan (July, 1937 - December, 1947)

Year	Impeachment: Number of Cases	Impeachment: Number of Persons Impeached	Censure: Number of Cases	Censure: Number of Persons	Recommendation: Number of Cases	Recommendation: Number of Items	Supervision of Examination	Petitions Received from the People
July–Dec. 1937	46	71	..	..	..	..	..	1,427
1938	32	48	44	64	44	54	..	1,680
1939	50	92	65	118	143	145	59	1,424
1940	56	111	84	124	108	129	79	2,533
1941	45	69	75	106	88	90	111	2,454
1942	57	107	109	171	159	202	132	4,804
1943	53	78	166	273	162	170	128	5,265
1944	51	88	79	163	130	130	67	3,190
1945	82	150	110	241	82	105	42	4,650
1946	153	217	214	413	137	149	74	6,733
1947	163	300	228	453	144	185	147	14,096
Total	788	1,331	1,174	2,126	1,197	1,359	839	48,256

Source: Control Yuan

DEMARCATION OF POWERS

The demarcation of authority between the province and the Central Government, based on the principle of equal distribution, is carefully defined by the constitution. It may be summarized as follows:

(1) Matters that should be governed and executed by the Central Government include: foreign affairs, national defense, nationality law, civil, criminal and commercial laws, judicial system, weight and measures, policies on international trade, currency system and state banks, national finance and revenue, state-operated enterprises, financial and economic matters of an international nature, aviation, national highways, state-owned railways, navigation, postal service and telegraph service, and those mentioned in the constitution.

(2) Matters that should be passed upon and executed either by the Central Government or delegated to the provincial and *hsien* governments include: general rules governing provincial and *hsien* self-government, division of administrative areas, forestry, mining and commerce, educational system, banking and exchange systems, shipping and coastal fishery, public utilities, cooperative enterprises, water conservancy, inter-province communication and transportation, land legislation, labor legislation, census-taking, civil service, eminent domain, immigration and land reclamation, police system, public health, general relief, compensation and unemployment relief, and preservation of ancient books, articles and landmarks of cultural value.

(3) Matters to be decided and executed by the provincial government or delegated to the *hsien* government for execution, besides those granted by the national government, include: provincial education, public health, industries and communications, management and disposal of provincial property, provincial and municipal administration, province-operated enterprises, provincial cooperative enterprises, provincial agriculture, and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and provincial public works, provincial finance and revenue, provincial banks, provincial debts, enforcement of provincial police administration, provincial charitable and public welfare enterprises.

(4) Matters that should be passed upon and executed by the *hsien* include: *hsien* education, public health, industries, and communications, management and disposal of *hsien* property, *hsien*-operated enterprises, *hsien* agriculture and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and *hsien* public works, *hsien* finance and revenue, *hsien* debts, *hsien* banks, administration of *hsien* policing and defense, *hsien* charitable and public welfare enterprises and those delegated by national legislation and the provincial laws.

All other matters not mentioned above shall fall within the jurisdiction of the Central Government if they are of a national nature, to the provinces if they are of a provincial nature, and to the *hsien* if they are of a *hsien* nature.

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

The Provincial Government

Administratively, China is divided into 35 provinces and the territory of Tibet each with its local government. Pending the establishment of popularly elected provincial governments in accordance with the new constitution, the present local administrations are based on the "Revised Organic Law of the Provincial Governments," promulgated by the National Government on March 23, 1931.

The provincial government administers all those affairs within its boundaries in accordance with the fundamentals of national reconstruction and the laws and mandates of the national government. It has the power to issue such ordinances and regulations necessary for the administration of its affairs so long as they do not conflict with the laws of the national government. Ordinances and regulations restricting the people's freedom and increasing the people's tax burden may not be enforced without the approval of the national government. It has the authority to rescind and nullify orders and measures enacted by its subordinate organs if it should deem them contrary to existing laws and orders, exceeding the jurisdiction or competence of the organizations in question, or unconstitutional.

Each provincial government has from seven to nine members, all appointed by the national government, who form the provincial commission. The chairman (governor) of the provincial government is appointed by the national government from among members of the provincial commission. Neither the chairman nor the members of the provincial commission may hold concurrent posts in another province. The provincial commission may decide on the following matters:

(1) Enactment of ordinances and regulations necessary for the welfare of the provinces and passing upon orders and measures issued by its subordinate organs;

(2) Increasing or decreasing the people's tax burden;

(3) Setting up of administrative districts;

(4) Preparing budgetary estimates;

(5) Disposing of public property and planning of provincial enterprises;

(6) Execution of matters assigned to it by the national government;

(7) Supervision of local self-government;

(8) Provincial administrative measures or alterations;

(9) Transfer of national troops from one part of the province to another and the supervision of local armed units for the maintenance of peace and order;

(10) Appointment and removal of all officials in and under the provincial government upon the approval of the national government;

(11) Other matters which fall within the province of the provincial commission.

The chairman of the provincial government has the following powers:

(1) To summon and preside over provincial commission meetings;

(2) To execute decisions of the provincial commission on behalf of the provincial government;

(3) To supervise the functions of all administrative organs in the province;

(4) To handle routine and emergency matters of the provincial government.

The provincial government has the following departments: (1) secretariat; (2) civil affairs; (3) finance; (4) education; (5) reconstruction.

Whenever necessary, it may organize an industry department and other special offices. The secretariat is run by a secretary-general under orders from the chairman of the provincial government. Each of the regular departments has a commissioner, to be selected from among members of the provincial commission by the national government on recommendation of the Executive Yuan. In case of departmental dispute over the question of competence, the provincial government refers the matter to the Executive Yuan for a settlement. By-laws of the various departments are reviewed by the provincial commission.

The Municipal Government

The existing "Organic Law of the Municipalities" was promulgated by the national government on May 20, 1930, and revised in 1947. In accordance with this law, there are two kinds of municipalities, special and ordinary. Special municipalities, so called because they are under the direct control of the Executive Yuan, comprise (1) the national capital, (2) cities that have a population of 1,000,000 or more; and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance. There are at present 12 special municipalities—namely, Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Chungking, Dairen, Harbin, Hankow, Canton, Sian and Mukden.

Ordinary municipalities, which are under the jurisdiction of their respective provincial governments, comprise (1) seats of provincial governments, (2) cities that have a population of over 200,000 and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance, and have a population of over 100,000. There are at present 55 ordinary municipalities.*

Municipalities, special and ordinary, are divided into a number of *chu* (districts). In theory, a *chu* comprises 10 to 30 *pao*, a *pao* consists of 10 to 30 *chia*, and a *chia* 10 to 30 households. The borders of municipal areas are decided, in the case of special municipalities, by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan; those of the ordinary municipalities, by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan and upon the recommendation of the provincial governments concerned.

Within the scope set by laws and orders issued by the central government and their superior organs, the municipality may undertake the following matters:

(1) Census-taking and personnel registration;

(2) Relief of orphans, the aged, paupers and victims of floods, famines and other calamities;

(3) Storage and regulation of food supplies;

(4) Agricultural, industrial, and commercial reform and protection;

(5) Labor administration;

(6) Afforestation, reclamation, animal husbandry, fishing and hunting, and measures for their protection and the suppression of harmful practices;

(7) Supervision of privately-owned public utilities;

(8) Organization and direction of cooperatives and mutual-help enterprises;

* The 55 ordinary municipalities are: Hsuchow, Lienyun, Hangchow, Pengpu, Nanchang, Wuchang, Changsha, Hengyang, Chengtu, Tzeliutsing, Foochow, Amoy, Taipeh, Keelung, Hsinchu, Taichung, Changhua, Chiayi, Tainan, Kaohsiung, Pingtung, Swatow, Chankiang (Kwangchowwan), Kweilin, Kunming, Kweiyang, Tangshan, Shihchiachuang, Tsinan, Chefoo, Waihaiwei, Taiyuan, Lanchow, Sining, Paotow, Shenpa, Kweisui, Kalgan, Chinchow, Yingkow, Anshan, Lushun (Port Arthur), Tunghua, Antung, Szepingkai, Kirin, Changchun, Mutankiang, Yenki, Kiamussu, Peian, Tsitsihar, Hailar, Tihwa, and Yingchuan.

(9) Customs reform;
(10) Educational and other cultural activities;
(11) Public safety;
(12) Fire prevention service;
(13) Public health;
(14) Establishment of hospitals, marts, abattoirs and places of public amusements;
(15) Compilation of financial receipts and expenditures, preliminary and final budgetary estimates;
(16) Management of public property and its disposal;
(17) Undertaking and management of public enterprises;
(18) Land administration;
(19) Building of public houses, parks, public athletic grounds and public cemeteries and their maintenance;
(20) Assisting the people in house-construction and the suppression of illegal practices;
(21) Building of roads, bridges, sewage systems, embankments and other public works of civil engineering;
(22) Management of rivers, harbors, and navigation;
(23) Functions assigned by superior organs;
(24) Other duties which, according to the constitution, should be undertaken by the municipality.

The revenues of the municipality shall be derived from the following sources: (1) Land tax; (2) House tax; (3) Business tax; (4) License tax; (5) Advertising tax; (6) Income from public property; (7) Income from public enterprises; (8) Other taxes and levies authorized by law.

In the first two items of income, various stipulations of law shall be adhered to. The municipality may issue reconstruction bonds in accordance with law.

The municipal government is headed by a mayor. In a special municipality, the mayor is appointed by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan. In an ordinary municipality the mayor is appointed by the Central Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial government concerned.

The municipal government has a secretary-general, two counsellors and the following bureaus, each headed by a director: (1) Social Welfare; (2) Police; (3) Finance; (4) Public Works.

Whenever necessary, the municipal government, upon approval by its superior organ, may have the following additional bureaus: (1) Education; (2) Public Health; (3) Land; (4) Public Utilities; (5) Harbor; (6) Civil Affairs.

It may also employ a number of technical personnel.

The *Hsien* Government

The organization of the *hsien* government and its component parts is stipulated in the "Organic Outline of Various Units in the *Hsien*," generally known as the "New *Hsien* System," which was promulgated by the national government in September, 1939. But because of the Sino-Japanese War and the subsequent communist rebellion, not all of the nation's 2,023 *hsien* have adopted the new system.

The *hsien* (county) is the basic unit of local self-government. It is rapidly becoming more representative of the people. Each *hsien* in turn may be broken into classes, depending on its area, population, economic conditions, cultural status, and communication facilities. There are the *hsiang* (rural areas) or *chen* (urban areas). The *hsiang* and *chen* are further divided into *pao* (borough) and *chia* (ward). If a *hsien* is unusually large, it may be divided into a number of *chu* (district).

Each *hsien* government has a magistrate, who administers all its affairs as well as orders of the central government and the provincial government. Under his supervision are bureaus to handle matters of civil affairs, finance, education, economic reconstruction, military affairs, land administration and social welfare.

The *hsien* that has adopted the new system also has a representative council formed by delegates from each *hsiang* (or *chen*), and from its professional groups. The delegates from professional groups shall constitute about three-tenths of the entire membership of the council.

In August, 1947, when the communists launched their all-out armed rebellion, the central government circulated an order among all the *hsien* in the country relieving the magistrates of the obligation to take orders from local military commanders, and limiting the maximum number of concurrent posts that a magistrate might hold. At the same time, the Executive Yuan ordered them to increase their sources of revenue so as to place themselves on a more self-supporting basis.

An experimental *hsien* was founded in north China by Dr. James Yen, internationally-known proponent of mass education, and Liang Su-ming, a noted scholar. Both Yen and Liang believe that the task of rebuilding the nation should start from the village up. Hence, they sought to promote mass education and develop the rural economy as a step toward administrative reforms in the local government.

With public and government support before the war, Yen and his associates selected Tinghsien in Hopei for their experiment, while Liang started his work in 1933 in Tsouping and Hotze in Shantung. In 1937 the central government undertook similar work in 17 *hsien* in 11 provinces.

In an experimental *hsien*, which is usually larger in area than an ordinary one, its magistrate is given a wider scope of power. He is free to disregard any instructions from his superiors if he deems them inimical to local interests. Financially, such a *hsien* is better off because of its own special funds.

The preparatory *hsien* is a transitional administrative unit. It assumes the status of a full-fledged *hsien* after it attains a certain degree of progress and development. It is often found in the interior where conditions are still largely primitive. Its establishment or abolition is decreed by the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial government concerned.

Office of the Administrative Commissioner

Most of China's provinces are large in size. In order to facilitate their control, the office of administrative commissioner was created in 1936 to provide an additional link between the provincial government and its *hsien* governments. The number of such offices in a province is determined by its size and population.

The administrative commissioner, who commands the police and peace preservation corps in his area, is appointed by the Executive Yuan for the provincial government. He is empowered to investigate, direct and supervise the functioning of his *hsien* government. He has the power to suggest reforms to the provincial government to improve conditions under his jurisdiction. He may also submit reports to the provincial government on developments.

He is required to make frequent tours to the various *hsien* under his control. He is authorized to convene conferences of magistrates, functionaries of local self-governing organs and representatives of public bodies to discuss ways and means of improving the local administration.

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVE BODIES

The Provincial Council

In September, 1938, two months after the first People's Political Council held its inaugural session, the national government promulgated a set of regulations governing the organization of provisional provincial councils. The regulations for provincial councils were promulgated on April 14, 1941.

According to the new regulations, all Chinese over 25 years of age, regardless of sex, who have had a middle school education or its equivalent, are eligible to become councillors. They must fulfill either of the following two qualifications: (1) they must be natives of the province concerned, and have served with distinction for more than two years in public or private organizations in that province; (2) if they are not natives they must have served with distinction for more than two years in an important cultural and economic organization in the province. The councillors are chosen on geographical and vocational basis, the ratio for the two being 6 to 4. Candidates of the former group are nominated by the *hsien governments* after consultation with leading civic bodies.

The term of office of the councillors is one year, and their tenure may be prolonged whenever the Executive Yuan deems it necessary. They meet once every six months, each session lasting for two weeks. The Council has a speaker and a deputy speaker. More than half of the councillors constitutes a quorum. A majority vote of those present is necessary to pass a resolution.

During its recess, the Council maintains a resident committee of five to nine members, elected from among themselves, to hear official reports and to supervise the enforcement of its resolutions by the provincial government.

Before executing any important administrative measures, the provincial government is required to present it to the provincial council for discussion and decision. If the council is in recess, the provincial government must obtain approval from the Executive Yuan for any emergency action and report the matter to the body at its next session. The council has power to make proposals to the provincial government, to hear reports and interpellate members of the provincial government. If the provincial government should find any resolution of the council impossible to execute, it may ask for a reconsideration at its next session. If two-thirds of the councillors present upholds the original decision, the provincial government, unless authorized by the Executive Yuan to do otherwise, is obligated to enforce the measure.

Up to the end of 1948, provincial councils had been established in 21 provinces,

while nine other provinces had set up provisional provincial councils. The Szechwan Provincial Council is the largest with 80 councillors. Those in Ningsia, Chinghai and Suiyuan are among the smallest, each having only 20 councillors.

The Municipal Council

Up to August, 1948, municipal councils had been established in nine cities: Nanking, Shanghai, Chungking, Tsingtao, Hankow, Sian, Peiping, Mukden and Tientsin, and a provisional municipal council in Canton. Their organization was based on the regulations enacted by the government in September, 1938, and revised on April 14, 1941. These regulations were essentially the same as those governing the organization of provisional provincial council.

There are three differences: the size of the municipal council is fixed at 25; the number of councillors which the Executive Yuan may appoint, other than candidates submitted by the municipal government, must not exceed 10 percent of the entire council, and the ratio of councillors chosen by the citizens at large and those representing the vocational groups must be 7 to 3.

The *Hsien* (County) Council

As of August, 1948, there were 1,789 *hsien* councils throughout the country, established in accordance with regulations promulgated on August 9, 1941. Each council, as the representative organ of the people in the *hsien*, has the power to examine and pass on its budgetary estimates; decide on ordinances and regulations, taxes, bonds, and other matters concerning the increase of the *hsien* revenue, suggest new projects and reforms and hear administrative reports and interpellate members of its *hsien* government.

The *hsien* council is composed of delegates elected by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) councils in the *hsien*. Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) elects one delegate. The vocational groups in the *hsien* may also elect their own delegates but their number must not exceed 30 percent of the entire *hsien* council. The term of office of councillors is two years, and they are eligible for re-election. Their original electorate, the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council or vocational groups, may recall them by a two-thirds vote at a meeting attended by more than half of the members. The *hsien* council's speaker and deputy-speaker are elected by secret ballot by its members from among themselves.

The council meets once every three months for three to seven days; the session may be prolonged whenever necessary. A majority of the membership constitutes a quorum. A majority vote is required to pass a motion. The council may ask the magistrate, secretary or section chiefs in the *hsien* government to be present at its session to render reports or to answer interpellations. Its councillors are not to be held responsible for their utterances or votes in the council, and, without the consent of the *hsien* council, no councillor may be arrested or detained.

The council forwards its decisions to the *hsien* magistrate for enforcement. If there is a delay in their enforcement or if they are improperly enforced, the council may demand an explanation. If the magistrate's explanation is considered unsatisfactory, it may submit the matter to the provincial government for decision. On the other hand, if the magistrate deems any resolution by the council as improper, he may state his reasons and ask the council for its reconsideration. If he considers the result still improper after the reconsideration, he may petition the provincial government for instructions. If the council passes any resolution contradictory to the Three People's Principles, or the national policy, the provincial government may submit the case to the Ministry of Interior. With the approval of the Executive Yuan, it may dissolve the council and order the election of a new council.

Residents of a *hsien* above 25 years of age, upon passing the examination for council candidates or who qualify by other means, are eligible to serve as *hsien* councillors. Ineligible for such office are: students, public functionaries in the *hsien*, and those in active military or police service.

The *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council

On August 9, 1941, the Government promulgated regulations governing the organization of the provisional *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council. Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall have a representative council to be composed of two delegates from each component *pao*, elected by its residents. Up to August, 1948, 31,072 such councils had been established throughout the country. Their powers and functions limited to *hsiang* (or *chen*) matters are as follows:

(1) To examine and decide budgetary estimates;

(2) To decide on the management and disposal of public property and public enterprises;

(3) To decide on local self-government rules and regulations;

(4) To decide on agreements with other *hsiang* (or *chen*);

(5) To decide on suggestions of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs;

(6) To elect or recall the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs;

(7) To elect or recall its delegates to the *hsien* council;

(8) To hear reports from the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office and to interpellate members of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office;

(9) To decide on new projects and reforms for the *hsiang* (or *chen*).

The term of office of its councillors is two years. They are eligible for re-election. If they violate any laws or are negligible in their duty, they may be recalled by their original electorate. The council meets once every two months. Half of the councillors constitutes a quorum. All resolutions must be carried by a majority vote. In recalling a *hsiang* (or *chen*) delegate from the *hsien* council, however, a two-thirds vote of those present shall be required. The qualifications and election of *hsiang* (or *chen*) councillors are the same as those of *hsien* councillors.

The *Pao* General Council

Each *pao* shall have a council to be composed of one delegate from each of its component households. Its functions and powers shall be:

(1) To decide on *pao* and *chia* regulations within its jurisdiction;

(2) To decide on agreements with other *pao*;

(3) To act on suggestions of its chief or those raised by five or more of its residents;

(4) To draft or recruit people for labor;

(5) To elect or recall delegates to the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council;

(6) To elect or recall its chief and deputy chiefs;

(7) To hear reports and interpellate the *pao* office;

(8) To decide on new *pao* projects or reforms.

The council meets once every month, and must be attended by more than half of its councillors. Its resolutions must be approved by a majority vote of those present. As of August, 1948, there were 393,824 such councils in the country.

The *Chia* Council

The *chia* has two representative organs. First is the council, which meets once a month, and is composed of the various household heads. Its functions and powers are:

(1) To elect and recall the *chia* chief;

(2) To enforce law and order;

(3) To inspect and report census changes in the *chia;*

(4) To decide on sanitation and health matters;

(5) To suggest new projects or reforms in the *chia.*

The other is the *chia* residents' meeting. Whenever its chief deems it necessary, or whenever more than ten residents so request, the residents may be summoned to a meeting to decide on important projects or to effect essential changes in its administration.

LOCAL SELF-RULE

Under the new constituion a province is entitled to enact, in accordance with the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government," a provincial charter which, however, must not contravene the constitution.

This provincial charter shall provide for the election of a governor and a provincial council, and define the relationship between the province and the *hsien.* It vests all legislative powers in the province to the provincial council.

After its enactment, the charter must be submitted immediately to the Judicial Yuan for approval. Provincial laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws are null and void. In case of doubt as to whether or not a provincial law or regulation contravenes a national law, interpretation is left to the Judicial Yuan.

Similarly, a *hsien* may convene an assembly to adopt its charter in accordance with the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government" law, but the same shall not contravene either the constitution or the provincial charter. Each *hsien* shall have a popularly elected council and a popularly elected magistrate. The legislative power of the *hsien* shall be exercised by its council. The magistrate shall enforce its charter and execute matters delegated by the central or the provincial government.

People in a *hsien* have the rights of initiative and referendum, and may elect and recall their magistrate and other *hsien* officials. *Hsien* laws and regulations that are in contravention of national or provincial laws and regulations are null and void.

The same provisions of *hsien* self-goverment shall apply to the ordinary

municipalities. The self-government system of Tibet, the Mongolian Banners and Leagues, and of the special municipalities under the direct control of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed separately by law.

The "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government" were still in the process of legislation as of September, 1948. The Legislative Yuan selected one of four different drafts for publication early in August.

The general rules contain 77 articles, grouped under seven chapters: general provisions, residents and citizens, self-government affairs, self-government organization, self-government finances, supervision over self-government, and by-laws.

The first chapter covering general provisions states among other things that self-governments at all levels are juristic persons. They may administer local affairs in accordance with law and attend to matters assigned to them by their superior government organs.

The second chapter defines the rights and duties of the residents and the citizens. All citizens of the Republic of China residing in a province or *hsien* are residents of that province or *hsien*. Only those who have attained the age of 20 years, who are bona fide citizens of the state, and who have resided continuously for six months, or established their domiciles for more than a year, in a province or a *hsien* are citizens of the said province or *hsien*. All residents are entitled to the use of public utilities, educational facilities, and the privileges provided by the local government, but only citizens have the right of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

The powers of a provincial government and those of a *hsien* government are enumerated in the third chapter. They are essentially the same as those provided in Article 108 of the constitution, which clarifies the powers of the central and the local governments.

The fourth chapter has six sections, each covering a separate local self-governing machine:

(1) **The Provincial Council:** The provincial council shall be composed of one delegate from each *hsien* or municipality, elected by the people thereof for a term of three years. Where the population of a *hsien* or a municipality exceeds 500,000, an additional delegate shall be elected. If necessary, a specified number of councillors shall be women or representatives of the vocational groups or minority racial groups.

The provincial council has the power to enact provincial laws and regulations, to decide provincial budgetary matters, taxes, bonds, ways and means to increase revenue, management and disposal of provincial public property and public enterprises, hear its administrative reports and interpellate the members of its local government.

(2) **The Provincial Government:** The provincial government shall be headed by a governor elected by the people of the province for a term of four years. He is subject to recall and removal by the central government if he violates the constitution or national laws and regulations. He may be removed from his post if he wilfully disobeys, or totally neglects, to carry out government assignments.

(3) **The *Hsien* Council:** The *hsien* council shall be composed of one delegate from each *hsiang* or *chen,* elected by the people thereof for a term of two years. Where the population of a *hsiang* or *chen* exceeds 30,000, one additional delegate shall be elected. A specified number of these councillors may be women or representatives of the vocational groups or minority racial groups.

The *hsien* council has the power to enact *hsien* laws and regulations, decide on budgetary estimates, taxes, bonds, methods to increase the revenue, management and disposal of property and public enterprises, hear its government reports and interpellate members of its government and to hear the appeals of its people.

(4) **The *Hsien* Government:** The *hsien* government shall have a magistrate elected by its people for a three-year term, subject to recall by the people and removal by its provincial government for transgression in any one of the following:

1. He continues to violate the constitution or national laws and regulations despite a Judicial Yuan edict forbidding him to do so;
2. He is convicted of a criminal offense;
3. He wilfully disobeys, or totally neglects, to carry out central government or provincial government assignments.

(5) **The *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council:** The *hsiang* (or *chen*) council shall be composed of one delegate from each *pao* elected by the people of the *hsiang* or *chen* for a term of one year. The *hsiang* or *chen* council shall have the power to decide on its budgetary estimates, local self-government rules and regulations; agreements with other *hsiang* or *chen;* hear reports from the *hsiang* or *chen* office; and other local matters.

(6) **The *Hsiang* or *Chen* Office:** The *hsiang* or *chen* office shall have a chief elected by the people of the *hsiang* or *chen* for a one-year term to carry out its local self-government affairs and matters assigned by the *hsien* government.

The chapter on self-government finance lists in full the sources of revenue for the local governments of all levels. The provincial government shall receive all revenues derived from the business tax, 40% of the receipts from the tax on native wines and tobaccos, 20% of the stamp tax collections, proceeds from province-owned public property and from province-operated enterprises, 50% of the land tax (or farm tax) and other taxes raised in accordance with the laws and subsidies granted by the central government.

The *hsien* government shall be allocated 50% of the receipts of the land tax (or farm tax), 50% of the inheritance tax, 40% of the tax on natives wines and tobaccos, 30% of the stamp tax, the entire receipts of the title deeds tax, butchery tax, license fee, feasting tax, amusement tax, and proceeds from *hsien*-owned public property and *hsien*-operated public enterprises, and receipts of other taxes raised in accordance with law and subsidies designated by the Central and the provincial governments.

The *hsiang* or *chen* office shall derive its main source of revenue from tax receipts allocated by the *hsien* council, proceeds from the *hsiang* or *chen* public property and public enterprises, and taxes created by the *hsiang* or *chen* council with the approval of the *hsien* government.

The sixth chapter states that the Executive Yuan shall be the supervisory organ of the provincial self-government; and the provincial government shall be that of the *hsien* self-government; and the *hsien* government, that of the *hsiang* or *chen* self-government.

The chapter also declares that if the governor or the *hsien* magistrate should deem any resolution by the provincial or *hsien* council as improper, he may submit his reasons to the provincial or *hsien* council concerned for a reconsideration within 15 days after the resolution is passed. If the latter upholds its earlier decision by a two-thirds vote of members present, he has to abide by the resolution. Disputes between the *hsiang* or *chen* council and the *hsiang* or *chen* chief shall be settled by the *hsien* government.

The last chapter provides for the amendment of the laws of the provincial and *hsien* self-governments. Such an amendment may be made upon the suggestion of one-fourth of the total number of members of the provincial or *hsien* council, and by a resolution carrying a vote of three-fourths of the delegates present at a meeting attended by a quorum of three-fourths of the entire council.

The domestic affairs and local self-government committee of the Legislative Yuan also had under study a bill on the law enforcement procedures of the provincial and *hsien* self-government. Among its provisions are:

(1) Within three months after the promulgation of the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government," the organic laws of their assemblies and their election by-laws, the provincial and *hsien* governments shall order separate elections of their assembly delegates.

(2) Within one month after the elections are held, the provincial and *hsien* governments shall summon their assemblies to meet to adopt their provincial and *hsien* self-government laws.

(3) Within three months after these provincial and *hsien* self-government charters are adopted, the provincial and the *hsien* governments shall order separate elections of the councillors, the governor and the *hsien* magistrate.

(4) Within two months following the election of the provincial councillors, the provincial government shall summon its council to meet.

Within one month after the election of the *hsien* councillors, the *hsien* government shall summon its council to meet.

(5) Within one month after the inauguration of the provincial and the *hsien* councils, the governor and the magistrate shall assume office to form their popularly elected governments.

(6) In provinces and *hsien* where local self-rule cannot be established within the time prescribed because of unstable conditions, the inauguration of local self-rule in said provinces or *hsien* may be postponed by permission of the higher authorities.

GOVERNMENT DIRECTORY
October 1949

President of the Republic of China: Chiang Kai-shek (elected March, 1948)

Vice-President: Li Tsung-jen*

Yuan Presidents:

- Executive: Yen Hsi-shan
- Legislative: Tung Kwan-hsien
- Judicial: Wang Chung-hui
- Examination: Chang Po-ling
- Control: Yu Yu-jen

The Executive Yuan (Cabinet)

- President: Yen Hsi-shan
- Vice-President: Chu Chia-hua

* Acted for President Chiang from January 21, 1949, to February 28, 1950.

Ministers without Portfolio:
Chang Chun, Wu Te-chen, Chen Li-fu, Hsu Yung-chang, Huang Shao-ku, Wang Ssu-tseng, Wan Hung-tu

Ministers:
Interior: Li Han-huen
Foreign Affairs: George K. C. Yeh
National Defense: Yen Hsi-shan
Finance: Kwan Chi-yu
Economic Affairs: Liu-Hang-shen
Communications: Tuan-mu Chieh
Education: Han Lih-wu
Justice: Chang Chih-pen

Chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission: Chou Kun-tien
Chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission: Tai Kwei-sheng

Military and Political Affairs Director-General:
For Central China: Pai Chung-hsi
South China: Yu Han-mou
Northwest: Ma Pu-fang
Southwest: Chang Chun
Southeast: Chen Cheng

APPENDIX

The Organic Laws of the Tsungtungfu and the Five Yuan

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE *Tsungtungfu* (The Office of the President)

Article 1—To enable the President of the Republic to discharge his duties in accordance with the Constitution, a *Tsungtungfu* shall be established.

Article 2—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a number of advisors, to be chosen by the President of the Republic from among persons of outstanding achievement and high reputation. They may make recommendations to the President on major policies concerning affairs of the State and shall be ready for consultation by the President.

Article 3—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a secretary-general with the special appointment rank. He shall, under the direction of the President, have general charge of the affairs of the entire *Tsungtungfu* and shall also direct and supervise its staff members.

The *Tsungtungfu* shall also have a deputy secretary-general with the selected appointment rank to assist the secretary-general in handling affairs in the *Tsungtungfu.*

Article 4—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a Director-General of Military Affairs with the special appointment rank, who under the direction of the President, shall be in charge of military affairs in the *Tsungtungfu.*

Article 5—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have the following bureaus and offices:

1. The First Bureau shall attend to promulgating laws, decrees and other public announcements, drafting and safe-keeping official documents, and shall have custody of seals and conference minutes.
2. The Second Bureau shall attend to drafting confidential documents, examining, initiating and forwarding confidential matters, and studying and organizing research materials.
3. The Third Bureau shall attend to promulgating military orders, forwarding military documents and other matters concerning military dispatches.
4. The Fourth Bureau shall attend to arranging ceremonies, reviewing troops, conducting presidential tours, awarding decorations, undertaking protocol activities and receiving foreign dignitaries.
5. The Fifth Bureau shall attend to the making of official seals, the making and distribution of decorations, medals, pennants and memorial badges, the compiling and publishing of laws and regulations promulgated by the *Tsungtungfu* the compiling and distribution of official bulletins, rosters and the standardization of forms to be used in official business.
6. The Sixth Bureau shall attend to general affairs, finances, registering guests, public relations, and other matters concerning transportation, public health and medicine.
7. The Code Office shall attend to the sending and receiving of confidential telegraphic messages.
8. The Office of Guards shall attend to guard duties.

Article 6—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a Presidential Seal Keeper, an office to be held concurrently by the director of the First Bureau, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, keep custody of the National Seal.

Article 7—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from 12 to 18 secretaries with the selected appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, draft and check important documents and undertake other special assignments.

Article 8—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from four to six counsellors with the selected appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, draft mandates, study plans and programs and deliberate on matters specially assigned to them. If necessary, the Tsungtungfu also shall have from three to seven special consultants either with the selected appointment rank or the recommended appointment rank to help attend to their duties.

Article 9—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have 14 editors, of whom four may have the selected appointment rank, and the rest the recommended appointment rank. The editors shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, examine and edit regulations and by-laws submitted to the *Tsungtungfu* for registration and the administrative reports of the various government organizations.

Article 10—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from 10 to 15 military aides to be appointed from among officers of the general rank in active service in all three branches of the armed forces. They shall, under the direction of the Director-General of Military Affairs, handle military matters and undertake special assignments.

Articles 11-19—[Stipulate in greater detail the number of officials, their functions, ranks and positions in the six bureaus, the Code Office and the Office of Guards.]

Articles 20-23—[Stipulate that in the *Tsungtungfu,* there shall be a personnel office, an accounting office, a statistics office, a contingent of guards, and a band.]

Article 24—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a number of councillors to be appointed by the President.

Article 25—In the *Tsungtungfu,* there shall be a National Policy Advisory Committee and a Military Strategy Advisory Committee, the organization of both of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 26—In the *Tsungtungfu,* there shall be a Merits Examination Committee, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 27—The Academia Sinica, the Institute of National History, and the Sun Yat-sen Mausoleum Administration shall be subordinate to the *Tsungtungfu.* Their organization shall be prescribed by law.

Article 28—Administrative rules and regulations of the *Tsungtungfu* shall be drafted by the secretary-general and submitted to the President for approval and enforcement.

Article 29—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree.

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 61 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Executive Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Executive Yuan shall establish the following ministries and commissions:*

(1) The Ministry of the Interior;
(2) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
(3) The Ministry of National Defense;
(4) The Ministry of Finance;
(5) The Ministry of Education;
(6) The Ministry of Justice;
(7) The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
(8) The Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
(9) The Ministry of Communications;
(10) The Ministry of Social Affairs;
(11) The Ministry of Water Conservancy;
(12) The Ministry of Land;
(13) The Ministry of Health;
(14) The Ministry of Food;
(15) The National Resources Commission;
(16) The Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission;
(17) The Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission;
(18) The Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics.

The organization of the various ministries and commissions shall be prescribed by law.

Article 4—The heads of all the ministries and commissions of the Executive Yuan shall be Ministers of State. The Executive Yuan shall have from five to seven Ministers of State without portfolio.

Article 5—The Executive Yuan shall establish a Government Information Office, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.**

Article 6—The Executive Yuan, upon resolutions by the Executive Yuan Council and the Legislative Yuan, may establish new ministries, commissions or other subordinate organs or abolish and amalgamate the existing ones.

Article 7—The president of the Executive Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan and supervision over all its subordinate organs. In case the President of the yuan should be unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 8—At Executive Yuan Council meetings, officials concerned may be invited to be present for consultation.

---

* In March, 1949, the Ministries of Agriculture and Forestry, Social Affairs, Water Conservancy, Land, Health, and Food, and the National Resources Commission were abolished in accordance with a policy of retrenchment. The Ministry of Industry and Commerce was reorganized into the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

** The Government Information Office was reorganized in March, 1949, into a much smaller office, and the director of the office no longer holds a ministerial rank as he did when the office was first established in 1947.

Article 9—In the Executive Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank and a deputy secretary-general of the selected appointment rank. The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials. The deputy secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president, assist the secretary-general in administering yuan affairs. The secretary-general and the deputy secretary-general shall be present at Executive Yuan Council meetings.

Article 10—In the Executive Yuan, a secretariat shall be formed to attend to the following matters:

(1) Keep conference minutes;

(2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;

(3) Distribute, draft and organize official documents;

(4) Keep custody of official seals;

(5) Attend to finance and general affairs.

Article 11—In the Executive Yuan there shall be: from 16 to 20 secretaries, of whom 10 shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest of the recommended appointment rank; from 15 to 20 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 50 to 80 section members of the designated appointment rank, of which 20 to 30 may be of the recommended appointment rank; and from 30 to 40 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 40 to 50 employees.

Article 12—In the Executive Yuan there shall be from 8 to 12 counsellors of the selected appointment rank who shall attend to the following matters:

(1) Draft bills and decrees;

(2) Examine administrative rules and regulations;

(3) Examine administrative programs and work reports of subordinate organs;

(4) Conduct investigations;

(5) Make plans and edit and translate materials.

To assist the counsellors in attending to the matters mentioned in the preceding sections, there shall be from 10 to 20 editors of the recommended appointment rank and from 10 to 20 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 15 to 25 employees.

Article 13—The Executive Yuan, to handle cases of petition, shall establish a Petitions Examination Committee, members of which shall be designated by the president of the yuan from among the yuan staff members of the selected appointment rank.

Article 14—The Executive Yuan may form committees to attend to specific matters.

Article 15—In the Executive Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics, and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be: a chief accountant of the recommended appointment rank; from 6 to 8 section members of the designated appointment rank; and from 2 to 4 clerks. In addition, there may be from 2 to 4 employees.

In the statistics office there shall be: a chief statistician of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 5 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be 2 to 3 employees.

In the personnel office there shall be: a director of the recommended appointment rank; from 8 to 11 section members and from 3 to 6 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 1 to 3 employees.

Article 16—Procedural by-laws of the Executive Yuan Council and administrative regulations of the yuan shall be prescribed by the yuan.

Article 17—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a government mandate on May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Executive Yuan under the new constitution.)

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 76 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Legislative Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Legislative Yuan shall have the following committees:

(1) Domestic Affairs and Local Self-Government;

(2) Foreign Affairs;

(3) National Defense;

(4) Economic Affairs and National Resources;

(5) Financial Affairs and Money and Banking;

(6) Budget;

(7) Education and Culture;

(8) Agriculture, Forestry and Water Conservancy;

(9) Communications;

(10) Social Affairs;

(11) Labor;

(12) Land Administration;

(13) Public Health;

(14) Frontier Affairs;

(15) Overseas Chinese Affairs;

(16) Maritime Affairs;

(17) Food Administration;

(18) Civil Code;

(19) Criminal Code;

(20) Commercial Laws;

(21) Law Codification.

When necessary, additional or special committees may be formed in the Legislative Yuan.

Article 4—The various committees in the Legislative Yuan shall be composed of people from among the Legislative Members. Each Legislative Member may serve on three committees at the same time.

Article 5—The various committees in the Legislative Yuan shall each have conveners; their number and the method of their selection shall be determined by the Legislative Yuan.

Article 6—Each of the committees in the Legislative Yuan shall have from one to three technical consultants of the Selected Appointment rank to attend to the study and drafting of legislative bills.

Article 7—The organization of committees in the Legislative Yuan shall be determined by law.

Article 8—Bills initiated by government organs in accordance with provisions of the constitution should first be examined by the relevant committees before they are presented before the yuan meeting for deliberation. If necessary, however, these bills may be directly presented to the yuan meeting for deliberation.

Bills initiated by Legislative Members shall be first introduced to the Yuan meeting for deliberation.

Article 9—Any bill presented to the Legislative Yuan in accordance with provisions of the constitution, pending resolutions thereupon, may be amended or withdrawn by the party which presented it.

Article 10—No Legislative Yuan meeting shall be convened unless it is attended by one-fifth of the entire membership of the yuan.

Article 11—Legislative Yuan meetings shall be presided over by the president of the yuan.

Article 12—Resolutions at Legislative Yuan meetings, except as otherwise stipulated in the constitution, shall be adopted by a simple majority of the members present. In case of a tie, the president of the yuan shall make the final decision.

Article 13—No Legislative Member may move to oppose any resolution adopted in his absence at a yuan or a committee meeting.

Article 14—Legislative Members shall abstain from voting when they themselves are the subjects of bills under discussion.

Article 15—Any statutory bills proposed for deliberation must have the joint signature of at least 30 Legislative Members.

Article 16—The Legislative Yuan shall hold open sessions. But upon the proposal of the presiding officer or that of more than one-tenth of the attending members, it may hold secret sessions.

The president of the Executive Yuan may also request the holding of a secret session.

Article 17—Order at Legislative Yuan meetings shall be maintained by the presiding officer. In case any Legislative Member violates the rules of procedure or otherwise obstructs the order of the meeting, the presiding officer may warn the said member or forbid him from making further utterances. Punishment shall be meted out to offenders in more serious cases.

Such punishment shall be deliberated upon by a disciplinary committee formed by the conveners of the various committees and shall be submitted to a Legislative Yuan meeting for final decision.

Article 18—The President of the Legislative Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan.

In case the president of the Legislative Yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 19—In the Legislative Yuan, there shall be a secretary-general with the special appointment rank and a deputy secretary-general with the selected appointment rank, to be recommended by the president of the yuan from among persons other than members of the yuan for appointment.

The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the Legislative Yuan, administer the yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials. The deputy secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, assist the secretary-general in the administration of the yuan affairs.

Article 20—The Legislative Yuan shall have a secretariat composed of several divisions to attend to the following matters:

(1) Arrange the agenda for yuan meetings;

(2) Keep records of yuan meetings;

(3) Send, receive and file correspondence and documents;

(4) Distribute, draft and compile correspondence and documents;
(5) Keep custody of official seals;
(6) Administer finance and general affairs;
(7) Maintain guard duties.

Article 21—[Stipulates the personnel composition of the secretariat.]

Article 22—The Legislative Yuan shall have an editorial department to attend to the following matters:
(1) Compile and publish laws and regulations of the nation;
(2) Compile and translate the laws of other countries;
(3) Gather reference materials;
(4) Handle special editorial assignments;
(5) Maintain library service.

Article 23—[Stipulates the personnel composition of the editorial department.]

Article 24—[Stipulates that in the Legislative Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office.]

Article 25—The Legislative Yuan may have from 16 to 24 technical experts.

Article 26—Rules of procedure and administrative regulations of the Legislative Yuan shall be prescribed by the Legislative Yuan.

Article 27—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence on May 8, 1948.)

The Organic Law of the Judicial Yuan

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 82 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Judicial Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—In the Judicial Yuan, there shall be a Council of Grand Judges to be composed of 17 members and to exercise the functions of interpreting the Constitution and unifying the definition of laws and ordinances.

The Council of Grand Judges shall be presided over by the president of the Judicial Yuan.

Article 4—The Grand Judges must have one of the following qualifications:
(1) Have served as Supreme Court judges for no less than 10 years;
(2) Have served as Legislative Members for no less than 9 years;
(3) Have taught principal courses of jurisprudence in national universities for no less than 10 years;
(4) Have served as judges in the Permanent Court of International Justice or have written authoritative works on public law or comparative laws;
(5) Have studied law, are rich in political experience and are widely known for their achievements.

The number of those who fulfill only one of the preceding qualifications shall not exceed one-third of the total number of Grand Judges.

The Grand Judges shall each serve a term of nine years.

Article 5—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a Supreme Court, an Administrative Court and a Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The organization of the above-mentioned Courts and Commission shall be determined by law.

Article 6—The president of the Judicial Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan, and have supervision over its subordinate organs.

In case the president of the Judicial Yuan is unable to attend to office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 7—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a Secretary-General. He shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the yuan affairs and supervise the subordinate officials.

Article 8—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the follow matters:
(1) Keep conference minutes;
(2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;
(3) Distribute, draft and organize official documents;
(4) Keep custody of official seals;
(5) Attend to financial and general affairs.

Article 9—In the secretariat there shall be from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 6 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 30 to 50 section members of the designated appointment rank, 15 of whom may be of the recommended appointment rank; three stenographers of the designated appointment rank; from 25 to 35 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 25 to 35 other employees.

Article 10—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be from 6 to 8 counsellors of the selected appointment rank to draft and supervise bills and decrees.

Article 11—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office, and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be a chief accountant of the selected appointment rank. The offices of statistics and personnel shall each have a chief of the recommended appointment rank. Other officials shall be decided by the president of the yuan, together with the organs concerned, from among the personnel allotted by Article 9 of this law.

Article 12—The administrative regulations of the Judicial Yuan shall be prescribed by the Yuan.

Article 13—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Judicial Yuan under the new constitution.)

The Organic Law of the Examination Yuan

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 89 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Examination Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—In the Examination Yuan there shall be 19 Examination Commissioners, whose term of office shall be 6 years.

Article 4—The Examination Yuan Council, to be composed of the president and the vice-president of the yuan and the Examination Commissioners, shall have overall charge of matters pertaining to examinations. The president of the yuan shall preside over the council meetings.

Article 5—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a Ministry of Examinations and a Ministry of Personnel Registration.

Article 6—The Ministry of Examinations shall attend to the following matters:
(1) Hold examinations for public functionaries;
(2) Hold examinations for professional practitioners and technical personnel;
(3) Organize examination committees;
(4) Compile names of successful candidates for approval;
(5) Arrange details relating to the holding of examinations.

Article 7—The Ministry of Personnel Registration shall attend to the following matters:
(1) Registration of public functionaries;
(2) Registration and classification of candidates successful in examinations;

(3) Checking and registering work records of public functionaries;
(4) Appointment and discharge of public functionaries;
(5) Promotion, demotion and transfer of public functionaries, and the determination of their qualifications for proper ranking;
(6) Checking and registering salaries and commendations of public functionaries;
(7) Protection, compensation, retirement, and pension of public functionaries;
(8) Supervision over the personnel offices of various government organizations.

Article 8—The organization of the Ministry of Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel Registration shall be prescribed by law.

Article 9—The president of the Examination Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the yuan and have supervision over its subordinate organs. In case the president of the yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 10—The term of office of the president and the vice-president of the Examination Yuan shall be six years.

Article 11—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the Yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials.

Article 12—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the following matters:
(1) Keep conference minutes;
(2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;
(3) Distribute, draft and compile official documents;
(4) Keep custody of official seals;
(5) Attend to financial and general affairs.

Article 13—In the secretariat there shall be from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest, of the recommended apointment rank; from 5 to 7 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 45 to 60 section members of the designated appointment rank, of whom 6 to 10 may be of the recommended appointment rank; from 5 to 10 clerks of the designated appointment rank; from 20 to 30 assistants of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 30 to 40 other employees.

Article 14—In the Examination Yuan there shall be from 6 to 8 counsellors of the selected appointment rank to draft

and supervise bills and decrees relating to examinations and rank classification.

Article 15—In the Examination Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office, and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

The offices of accounting, statistics and personnel shall each have a chief of the recommended appointment rank. Other officials shall be decided by the president of the yuan, together with the organs concerned, from among the personnel allotted by Article 13 of this law.

Article 16—When necessary, the Examination Yuan may organize various committees, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 17—The Examination Yuan may establish in each province a department of personnel registration, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 18—While holding examinations, the Examination Yuan may obtain the service of personnel from other government organizations on a loan basis.

Article 19—In the appointment of public functionaries, except as otherwise provided by law, the Examination Yuan may, without going through the procedure of disciplinary action, recommend demotion or discharge of any official found deficient in his prescribed qualifications.

Article 20—Rules of meetings and administrative regulations of the Examination Yuan shall be prescribed by the Yuan.

Article 21—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Examination Yuan under the new constitution.)

The Organic Law of the Control Yuan

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 106 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Control Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Control Yuan may organize various committees, the organization of which shall be separately prescribed by law.

Article 4—In the Control Yuan there shall be a Ministry of Audit to attend to the following matters:

(1) Supervision over the execution of budgets by all government organs in the country;

(2) Ratification of orders of receipt and payment of all government organs;

(3) Examination of the preliminary and final budgetary statements of all government organs;

(4) Investigation of violations of fiscal measures or malfeasance of duties on the part of any government organ in the country.

The organization of the Ministry of Audit shall be prescribed separately by law.

Article 5—The Auditor-General shall have general charge of the affairs of the Ministry of Audit.

Article 6—The president of the Control Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the yuan and have supervision over its subordinate organs.

In case the president of the Control Yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 7—The Control Yuan Council shall be composed of the president and the vice-president of the yuan and all the Control Members with the president of the yuan as its chairman.

Article 8—The Control Yuan may, in case of necessity, divide the country into zones and establish provisional offices therein. The organization of these offices shall be prescribed separately by law.

Article 9—In the Control Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank, who shall be selected by the president of the yuan from among persons other than Control Members for appointment by the government.

The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the affairs of the Control Yuan and direct and supervise all its subordinate officials.

Article 10—In the Control Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the following matters:

(1) Keep conference minutes;

(2) Undertake investigations and collect relevant data;

(3) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;

(4) Distribute, draft and compile official documents;

(5) Keep in custody official seals;

(6) Attend to finance and general affairs.

Article 11—In the Control Yuan there shall be from 4 to 6 counsellors to draft and supervise bills and decrees relating to control affairs.

Article 12—In the Control Yuan there shall be: from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest, of the recommended appointment rank; from 8 to 16 investigators, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest, of the recommended appointment rank; from 4 to 6 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 2 to 4 stenographers, of whom two shall be of the recommended appointment rank and the rest, of the designated appointment rank; from 40 to 50 section members of the designated appointment rank, of whom 12 may be of the recommended appointment rank; from 20 to 40 clerks and from 20 to 40 junior clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 40 to 60 other employees.

The Control Yuan may also have from 6 to 12 technical consultants.

Article 13—In the Control Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office, to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be a chief accountant of the selected appointment rank; two section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 4 to 6 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 4 to 6 other employees.

In the statistics office there shall be a chief statistician of the recommended appointment rank; from 2 to 4 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 4 to 6 other employees.

In the personnel office there shall be a chief of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 6 section members and from 2 to 4 assistants of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be 1 to 2 other employees.

Article 14—Rules of procedure for the Control Yuan Council and administrative regulations of the Yuan shall be prescribed by the Control Yuan.

Article 15—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate dated May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence from the day of convocation of the Control Yuan under the new constitution.)

CHAPTER 8

NATIONAL DEFENSE

THE MINISTRY OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

The Ministry of National Defense was established on June 1, 1946, to replace the National Military Council and the Ministry of War.

Up to then, the National Military Council, created in March, 1932 to unify the various military organs, had been exercising all military powers. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was the chairman of the council. Under him were a chief-of-staff and two deputy chiefs-of-staff who assisted him in directing the work of its numerous boards, commissions and departments. The Ministry of War and the Ministry of Conscription, which was established on November 16, 1944, were subject to orders of the chairman of the National Military Council.

Following the establishment of the Ministry of National Defense, the Minister came directly under the Premier as all other ministers of the Executive Yuan. In the ministry are six divisions: (1) personnel, (2) intelligence, (3) planning and operation, (4) supplies, (5) training, (6) technical studies. Bureaus within the ministry are: Information and Civil Affairs, Budgets, Historical Data, Supervision, Conscription, Reserve Officers, Surveys, Security, Courts-Martial, Adjutant Affairs, General Affairs. Departments are: Budget and Finance, Laws and Regulations, Military Personnel, Civil Personnel, Manpower, Industrial Mobilization, Purchasing, Engineering, Land and Construction, Secretariat, Aides, General Affairs, Army Headquarters, Naval Headquarters and Air Force Headquarters. Assisting the Minister are three vice-ministers and a chief-of-staff and three deputy chiefs-of-staff. The National Defense Science Commission comes directly under the minister.

ARMY

I. Before the War

After the completion of the Northern Expedition in 1928, the government set up a demobilization committee to reduce the size of the armed forces. A series of revolts, and seizure of the Northeastern Provinces by the Japanese in September, 1931, compelled the government to shelve its disbandment program.

In 1933, a military conference was convened in Nanchang, capital of Kiangsi province, to deal with the communist situation. By that time communist insurgents had entrenched themselves in regions in Kiangsi and several other provinces.

In 1936, with the steadily increasing Japanese pressure in the north, it was decided to re-equip 20 divisions each year for three years. This plan was only partially realized when Japan attacked in July, 1937.

Meanwhile, training corps were created to familiarize army officers with principles of modern warfare and to imbue them with the spirit of resistance. The first of its kind was opened at Kuling, Kiangsi, in February, 1933, the second at Mount Omei in Szechwan in 1935, and the third again at Kuling in the summer of 1937.

In view of the vulnerability of the coastal provinces, the government strengthened its defense works along the coastline in general and the estuaries of the Yangtze and the Yellow rivers in particular. Fortifications were erected at Kiangyin, Chinkiang and Nanking on the Yangtze and at other strategic points in Shantung, Honan, Shansi and Suiyuan. A strong defense line was built from Soochow to Kashing on the Chekiang-Kiangsu border. All these preparations later contributed to slowing down the enemy advance in the first few months of the war.

China's conscription law, promulgated in 1933 and enforced on March 1, 1936, provided universal military service for all able-bodied men between 18 and 45 years of age. Prior to that, the Chinese Army was raised through recruitment.

The government also began stockpiling vital war materials. Following the Mukden "Incident" of 1931 arsenals in China were steadily expanded. In 1936, a five-year program for the expansion of arsenals and storing up of munitions was mapped out. It stipulated that during the first half of 1937, the amount of munitions thus manufactured and stored should be sufficient to equip 30 divisions, one model brigade, and one heavy artillery regiment. This part of the program had been largely carried out when Japan struck. In the ensuing years China's arsenals could produce almost all types of light weapons.

II. During the War

The first shot of World War II was actually fired in Mukden on September 18, 1931, when Japan began to seize China's Northeastern Provinces.

Early in 1932, the Chinese resisted the Japanese in a short but bitter battle in Shanghai, resulting in the creation of a demilitarized zone around the port city. In 1933 Japan seized Jehol, and created a demilitarized zone in eastern Hopei, following the "Battle of the Great Wall" early in the year. Another "incident" in 1935, resulted in the Japanese military control over northeastern Chahar. An abortive invasion of Suiyuan was attempted by Japan in 1936. Meanwhile, from 1933 to 1937, Japan intensified political and economic exploitations in north China with the object of placing all Chinese provinces north of the Yellow river under her control.

All these acts of aggression precipitated the eight-year Sino-Japanese War that started on July 7, 1937, and ended on September 3, 1945. During the war, China fought a total of 22 major battles, 1,117 sizable and 38,931 minor engagements.

The war began when the Japanese troops demanded entrance to Wanping, county seat at the southern end of Lukouchiao (Marco Polo Bridge), south of Peiping, on the pretext of searching for a missing soldier. The demand was rejected by the Chinese garrison. The Japanese opened fire, and the Chinese resisted.

CHINA'S STRATEGY

China's strategy, as decided by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, was based on China's vast territory and extensive manpower. The war may be divided into three periods. The first period began with the outbreak of the war and ended with the conclusion of the Battle of Hankow and Wuchang (July 7, 1937—October 25, 1938). In this period space was traded for time to enable China to build up her strength. The Japanese were made to pay heavily for every advance.

The second period began with the fall of Hankow and Wuchang (October 25, 1938). The strategy of "magnetic warfare" was employed to attract the advancing Japanese troops to specific points where they were subjected to flanking attacks and encirclements.

The third period, which was to be a general counter-offensive, was obviated by the Japanese surrender on August 15, 1945. The Chinese armed forces were ready at the time to launch a major counter-offensive on enemy-held Canton from bases in western Hunan.

Each of the first two periods of the war may be divided into three phases as follows:

(1) First Period: July 7, 1937 (Lukouchiao "Incident")—October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow).

(a) First Phase: July 7, 1947—December 13, 1937 (Fall of Nanking).

(b) Second Phase: December 13, 1937—May 19, 1938 (Evacuation of Hsuchow).

(c) Third Phase: May 19, 1938—October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow).

(2) Second Period: October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow)—September 1945.

(a) First Phase: October 25, 1938—February 24, 1940 (Southern Kwangsi Battle).

(b) Second Phase: February 24, 1940—December 8, 1941 (Pearl Harbor Attack).

(c) Third Phase: December 8, 1941—September 1945.

Military Strength Compared

At the outset of war, Japan's military strength, including the standing army and

Table 1—Increase of Japanese Strength

Year	Men
1936 (July–Dec.)	832,000
1938	976,000
1939	1,120,000
1940	1,120,000
1941	1,168,000
1942	1,360,000
1943	1,840,000
1944	1,856,000
1945	1,516,000

Source: Ministry of National Defense

reserves, was estimated at 4,480,100 men, as against China's 1,700,000 regulars and 518,400 reservists; Japan's naval power was estimated at 1,900,000 tons as against China's 110,000 tons, and she had 2,700 airplanes as against China's 600.

The Japanese at first used a small force in China, but as the war progressed she had to throw more troops into the China Theater. (See Table 1)

Japanese Casualties

According to the Ministry of National Defense, the total Japanese casualties of war numbered 5,181,336, including those suffered by their garrison and supply units in the rear, and air casualties. The following table shows by year the number of Japanese killed and wounded.

Chinese Casualties

The Ministry of National Defense's reports show that from July 7, 1937 to September 2, 1945, Chinese regular troops killed, wounded and missing totalled 3,211,419. The number did not include the casualties suffered by guerilla and local militia corps. The casualties by year are as follows.

Table 2—Japanese Casualties

Year	Army Casualties			Casualties Suffered by Garrison and Supply Units in the Rear	Air Casualties
	Killed	Wounded	Total		
1937 (July–Dec.)	51,220	204,880	256,100	..	..
1938	88,978	355,912	444,890	..	..
1939	82,019	328,076	410,095	..	..
1940	68,327	273,309	341,636	..	..
1941	36,209	144,836	181,045	..	..
1942	27,841	111,362	139,203	340,000	4,280
1943	31,905	127,609	159,514	..	..
1944	50,158	200,632	250,790	..	..
1945	47,051	188,204	235,255	..	..
Total	483,708	1,934,820	2,418,528	340,000	4,280
Grand Total				5,181,336	

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

Table 3—Chinese Casualties

Year	Killed	Wounded	Missing	Total
1937 (July–Dec.)	125,130	242,232	..	367,362
1938	249,213	485,804	..	735,017
1939	169,652	176,891	..	346,543
1940	339,530	333,838	..	673,368
1941	144,915	137,254	17,314	299,483
1942	87,917	114,180	45,070	247,167
1943	43,223	81,957	37,715	162,895
1944	102,719	103,596	4,419	210,734
1945	57,659	85,583	25,608	168,850
Total	1,319,958	1,761,335	130,126	3,211,419

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

CAMPAIGNS FOUGHT

In the eight years of war, the Chinese and Japanese fought 22 important battles, 1,117 major engagements, and 38,931 minor and guerilla engagements. Among the important battles and campaigns fought were the Battle of Shanghai (August 13-November 9, 1937); Battle of Nanking (December 4-13, 1937); Battle of Sinkow (October 13-November 2, 1937); Battle of Hsuchow (March 23-May 19, 1938); Battle of Wuchang and Hankow (June 12-October 25, 1938); Battle of Nanchang (March 17-March 27, 1939); Suihsien-Tsaoyang Battle (May 1-May 17, 1939); Changsha Battle I (September 17-October 6, 1939); Southern Kwangsi Battle (November 15, 1939-February 24, 1940); Tsaoyang-Ichang Battle (May 1-June 12, 1940); South Honan Battle (January 24-February 10, 1941); Battle of Shangkao (March 15-March 28, 1941); Battle of Southern Shansi (May 7-May 27, 1941); Changsha Battle II (September 6-October 8, 1941); Changsha Battle III (December 24, 1941—January 15, 1942); Burma Campaign (March 7-May 11, 1942); Chekiang-Kiangsi Battle (May 15-August 28, 1942); Battle of Western Hupeh (May 5-June 14, 1943); Battle of Changteh (November 2-December 25, 1943); Battle of Central Honan (April 18-June 15, 1944); Battle of Central Hunan (May 25-August 8, 1944); Burma-Yunnan Battle (March 5, 1944-January 20, 1945); Kwangsi-Kweichow Battle (August 26-December 12, 1944); Honan-Hupeh Campaign (March 21-August, 1945); Western Hunan Campaign (April 9-August, 1945). The battles and engagements fought from July, 1937, up to the time of Japanese surrender in August, 1945, are shown in the following table:

Table 4—Campaigns Fought

	Important Battles	Major Engagements	Minor and Guerilla Engagements
First Period— First Phase (July–Dec., 1937)	2	83	..
Second Phase (Jan.–May, 1938)	1	91	..
Third Phase (Jan.–Oct., 1938)	1	102	..
Second Period— First Phase (Nov., 1938–Feb., 1940)	4	163	9,492
Second Phase (Mar., 1940–Nov., 1941)	5	333	11,846
Third Phase (Dec., 1941–Sept., 1945)	9	345	17,593
Total	22	1,117	38,931

For detailed information on the important battles, see China Handbook 1937-45.

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

III. After V-J Day

On August 10, 1945, Radio Tokyo announced that Japan was ready to accept the Potsdam Declaration by President Chinag Kai-shek, President Truman and Prime Minister Churchill demanding Japan's unconditional surrender. The formal surrender note was transmitted to the United States on the same day by the Swiss Charge d'Affaires in Washington. Identical notes were sent to the governments of China, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. through the government of Switzerland.

TABLE 5—PERCENTAGE OF MILITARY EXPENSES IN CHINESE NATIONAL BUDGET DURING WAR YEARS

Year	Percentage
1937	65.48
1938	61.97
1939	51.83
1940	71.97
1941	68.09
1942	54.35
1943	58.12
1944	66.95
1945	69.10

Source: Ministry of National Defense

On behalf of the governments of the United States, China, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R., American Secretary of State James F. Byrnes sent a reply on August 11 to the Swiss Charge d'Affaires in Washington for transmission to the Japanese Government.

The Japanese Government, through the Swiss Government, sent another note to the Government of the United States, on August 14, formally signifying the Japanese Government's decision to surrender unconditionally to the allies. The note was published simultaneously in Washington (7 p.m. August 14) and Chungking (7 a.m. August 15).

The official Japanese surrender was signed on September 2, 1945, on board the *U.S.S. Missouri* in Tokyo bay. Mamoru Shigemitsu represented the Japanese Government and General Yoshijiro Umetsu, the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters. General of the Army Douglas MacArthur represented the Allies. General Hsu Yung-chang, Minister of Military Operations, was China's representative. Emperor Hirohito, by order of General MacArthur, issued a proclamation commanding the Japanese Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters to sign on his behalf the instrument of surrender and to issue general orders to the military, naval and air forces as directed by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

In the China Theater, excluding the Northeastern Provinces but including Taiwan (Formosa) and Indo-China north of 16° north latitude, Japanese troops were to surrender to General Ho Ying-chin, commander-in-chief of the Chinese Ground Forces. Major-General Takeo Imai, deputy chief-of-staff to General Yasutsugu Okamura, commander of Japanese troops in China, arrived in Chihkiang in western Hunan on August 21 and left on the 23rd after a stay of 52 hours. He received from Lieutenant-General Hsiao Yi-shu, chief-of-staff to General Ho, detailed instructions for Japanese surrender in China. Lieutenant-General Leng Hsin, deputy chief-of-staff to General Ho, arrived in Nanking to establish the forward echelon of the headquarters of the Chinese Ground Forces on August 27. Chinese air-borne troops began to land in Nanking in force on September 5 and in Shanghai on the 6th.

The official surrender of Japanese troops in China was signed in Nanking on September 9, 1945. The representative of the surrendering Japanese troops was General Yasutsugu Okamura, commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in China. General Ho accepted the surrender on behalf of the Chinese Government.

In accordance with the decision of General MacArthur, supreme commander for the Allied Powers, Japanese forces in French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude surrendered to General Lu Han, commander of the First Area Forces, at Hanoi on September 30.

Number of Surrendering Japanese Troops—At the time of the Japanese surrender, the troops under General Okamura's command included: 362,244 men of the North China Area Army; 290,367 of the 6th Area Army in central China; 330,397 of the 5th, 10th and 3rd Armies in the Nanking-Shanghai area; 137,386 of the 23rd Army in Kwangtung; 199,031 of the 10th Area Army in Taiwan; and 29,815 in the part of French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude. They totalled 1,313,240 men.

The commanding units and designations of these troops were one general headquarters, three group armies, ten armies, 36 divisions including two tank divisions and two air-borne divisions, 40 independent brigades including one cavalry brigade, 19 independent garrison corps, defense corps and detachments, and six naval special base corps and marine corps.

The Chinese commanders and the areas assigned to them to accept the surrender were:

General Lu Han, commander of the First Area Forces — French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude.

General Chang Fah-kwei, commander of the Second Area Forces—Canton, Luichow peninsula, and Hainan island.

TABLE 6—NUMBER OF ABLE-BODIED MEN DRAFTED DURING THE WAR YEARS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES

Province	Year									Total
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	
Szechwan	103,837	175,145	296,341	266,375	344,610	366,625	352,681	391,112	283,086	2,579,810
Sikang	..	..	4,713	5,437	5,817	3,282	4,621	4,606	2,462	30,938
Yunnan	..	96,317	25,582	731	35,509	59,017	58,180	63,231	36,126	374,693
Kweichow	47,149	35,142	64,741	68,643	71,603	69,603	83,848	37,416	56,271	534,416
Kwangsi	106,691	288,665	34,710	104,744	64,961	76,849	76,326	90,379	24,721	808,046
Kwangtung	35,247	80,470	131,693	126,196	100,127	122,720	104,349	188,742	36,329	925,873
Fukien	29,427	33,499	60,064	58,249	55,716	51,041	48,510	38,545	50,174	425,225
Chekiang	32,791	30,448	94,636	108,479	66,492	49,608	59,362	62,279	47,398	551,493
Anhwei	44,271	23,832	54,329	68,715	69,479	95,054	78,433	74,111	56,450	564,674
Kiangsi	43,230	154,642	178,210	120,634	98,069	107,823	92,712	92,902	59,501	947,723
Hunan	190,505	220,745	223,296	216,780	169,623	208,836	184,421	101,756	54,210	1,570,172
Hupeh	75,805	95,043	96,279	64,280	67,079	88,307	86,942	72,796	42,669	689,200
Honan	126,964	334,173	264,370	394,250	243,379	214,589	205,815	109,934	24,982	1,908,456
Shensi	37,197	68,679	126,341	127,430	80,350	99,707	117,872	144,819	85,968	888,363
Kansu	23,774	40,982	54,627	54,355	50,230	55,769	42,516	32,714	28,890	383,857
Shansi	..	..	..	..	33,500	23,103	60,000	60,000	60,000	236,603
Shantung	15,923	15,000	16,194	..	..	..	3,728	..	..	50,845
Kiangsu	18,859	20,437	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,296
Suiyuan	..	..	..	..	..	53	5,200	..	..	5,253
Ningsia	..	4,000	..	..	4,000	4,609	3,000	4,000	4,000	23,609
Chinghai	..	2,500	..	..	474	905	2,130	6,000	6,000	18,009
Others	..	..	263,569	116,043	106,916	10,906	..	..	..	497,434
TOTAL	931,670	1,659,719	1,989,695	1,891,339	1,667,934	1,708,406	1,670,646	1,575,342	959,237	14,053,988

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

General Yu-Han-mou, commander of the Seventh War Area—Kukong, Chaochow and Swatow.

General Wang Yao-wu, commander of the Fourth Area Forces—Changsha and Hengyang.

General Hsueh Yueh, commander of the Ninth War Area — Nanchang and Kiukiang.

General Tang En-po, commander of the Third Area Forces—Nanking and Shanghai.

General Ku Chu-tung, commander of the Third War Area—Kashing, Kinhwa, and Hangchow.

General Sun Wei-ju, commander of the Sixth War Area — Wuhan, Shasi, and Ichang.

General Li Pin-hsien, commander of the Tenth War Area — Hsuchow, Anking, Pengpu and Haichow.

General Sun Lien-chung, commander of the Eleventh War Area—Tientsin, Peiping, Paoting and Shinchiachwang.

General Li Yen-nien, deputy commander of the Eleventh War Area—Tsingtao, Tsinan and Tehchow.

General Hu Tsung-nan, commander of the First Area—Loyang.

General Liu Shin, commander of the Fifth War Area—Chengchow, Kaifeng, Sinsiang, Nanyang, Siangyang and Fancheng.

General Yen Hsi-shan, commander of the Second War Area—Shansi province.

General Fu Tso-yi, commander of the Twelfth War Area—Jehol, Chahar, and Suiyuan provinces.

General Chen Yi, governor of Taiwan —Taiwan, including the Pescadores.

In Hongkong and Kowloon, Rear Admiral Harcourt of Great Britain was authorized by President Chiang Kai-shek, Supreme Allied Commander for the China Theater, to accept the Japanese surrender.

Disarmament of Japanese Troops—When the Chinese Army Headquarters was ordered to accept the enemy surrender, the major part of the Chinese troops was stationed in the southwestern provinces. As order had to be restored in various places immediately after the disarmament of the Japanese troops, the Chinese Command decided to utilize the existing Japanese army organizations and headquarters to do liaison work instead of occupying them outright. The sphere of liaison expanded as the Japanese troops in Taiwan and northern French Indo-China and the Japanese Navy in China, originally independent of General Okamura, were put under his command, thus enabling him to carry out all the orders of Generalissimo Chiang and the Chinese Army Headquarters in respect to Japanese armed forces in China.

The Chinese troops were air-lifted, transported by ships or trucks, or they marched on foot to various designated centers where the Japanese troops were concentrated, ready to be disarmed.

This program of disarming the Japanese troops was conducted from September 11 to the middle of October, 1945. As a result of the destruction of communications by the communists, Japanese troops in northern Kiangsu and north China were not disarmed until the beginning of February, 1946. One artillery unit of some 100 men in Wayao, northern Kiangsu, and about 100 others at the Taian railway station in Shantung were disarmed by local armed forces. All the places scheduled to be taken over were recovered by the national forces with the exception of Chengteh, Chihfeng, Tulun, Kalgan and Kupeikow, which had then been occupied by the communist troops.

Japanese arms, vehicles, planes and ships taken over before mid-April, 1946, were:

(1) Infantry light arms: 685,897 rifles, 60,377 pistols, and 29,822 light and heavy machineguns.

(2) Artillery: 12,446 pieces of various kinds and calibres.

(3) Ammunition: 180,994,000-odd rounds of rifle bullets, 2,035,000-odd rounds of pistol bullets, and more than 2,070,000 shells of various kinds.

(4) Vehicles: 383 tanks, 151 armored trucks, and 15,785 trucks.

(5) Horses: 74,159.

(6) Important aeronautical materials: 1,068 planes of various models, 6,000 tons of bombs, and 3,101,927 gallons of aviation gasoline.

(7) Naval vessels: 1,400 vessels with a total tonnage of 54,600. The average tonnage of these vessels was less than 50. Most of them were useless.

Enemy and Puppet Assets—To take over enemy and puppet party and political organizations, a special committee was organized by the Chinese Army Headquarters. Serving on it were advisers to the headquarters sent by the various ministries in the Executive Yuan.

The assets seized by the Japanese in China were all formerly administered by the Japanese Great Asia Ministry with the exception of a small number of electric and communications installations for military use which were controlled by the Japanese Army. The Chinese Army Headquarters made General Okamura solely responsible for the handing over of these assets. Special commissioners of various ministries were assigned to accept them.

Repatriation of Japanese—Japanese prisoners of war and civilians totalled 2,149,455, including 1,255,000 P.O.W.'s, 784,974 civilians, 65,363 Koreans, and 44,118 Taiwanese. They were concentrated in different areas on the Chinese mainland, Taiwan, Hainan island, and north French Indo-China, in order to be repatriated through Tangku, Tsingtao, Lienyunkang, Shanghai, Amoy, Swatow, Canton, Haiphong, Keelung and Kaohsiung. China was responsible for transporting them to the seaports where they were to be taken to Japan in American ships, including 85 landing vessels and 100 Liberty ships, and a number of Japanese ships.

In transporting the Japanese to the ports of embarkation, China was greatly handicapped by the low water in the Yangtze, the shortage of shipping facilities and the destruction of railways by the communists. The whole task began at the end of October, 1945. By the middle of April, 1946, more than 80 percent of the total number had been repatriated. The whole program was completed by the end of June, 1946.

Problem of Demobilization—Because of the magnitude of mobilization during the war, demobilization at once proved to be a complicated problem. Nevertheless, 1,160,000 officers and men were honorably discharged; and 650,000 puppet troops, who had surrendered to the government, were disbanded. The government paid pensions to families of 1,800,000 officers and men killed in action.

To prevent unemployment, the government established vocational training corps for the demobilized men and officers. Altogether 240,000 officers joined, of whom 50,000 continued to take advanced studies. The following eleven types of employment was given to 73,514 officers:

Police	25,992
Traffic control	4,996
Agricultural, forestry and animal husbandry	576
Local administration	8,029
Banking and finance	500
Mass education	11,514
Social welfare	18,118
Fishery	1,000
Public health	1,928
Industrial and mining management	567
Land administration	294

Of the demobilized soldiers, the bulk were sent home. The remainder were organized into several labor corps to work on railways, highways, water conservancy projects, and other public works in various parts of the country. Those who worked on railways or in mines later joined the railway police or mine police corps while the rest were given land to till.

The age-limit for officers to retire from active service was set as follows:

Rank	*Retirement Age*	*Discharge Age*
General, First Grade	62	....
General, Second Grade (or Lt.-General with General's title)	60	70
Lieutenant-General	56	65
Major-General	52	60
Colonel	46	58
Lieutenant-Colonel	44	55
Major	42	53
Captain	40	50
1st Lieutenant	38	47
2nd Lieutenant	36	47
Warrant Officer	34	

After the demobilization and up to the end of 1947, 15 generals, 217 lieutenant-generals, 576 major-generals and officers of other ranks voluntarily asked for retirement from the service. The government gave each, in accordance with his length of service, a sizable retirement payment in addition to travelling expenses and a monthly pension until discharge from the army. Up to the end of 1947, altogether 100,000 officers were put on the retired list.

Reorganization of Chinese Army—After the demobilization, the Chinese Army began a general reorganization. It was planned after V-J Day that before the end of 1946, the Chinese ground forces should be cut down to 90 divisions. Later, it was resolved by the Political Consultation Conference on February 25, 1946, to adopt a new army plan which stipulated that within one year, all armed forces in China should be reorganized into 108 divisions, including 18 communist divisions. This plan, however, was later sabotaged by the Chinese communists.

In March, 1946, 27 armies and 67 divisions along the Lunghai railway were reorganized by the government into 27 divisions and 67 brigades. Toward the end of April, the first phase of army reorganization was completed.

In the second period, between May and the end of June, the 25 armies and 70

divisions south of the Yangtze were reorganized into 25 divisions and 70 brigades, leaving five armies and 13 divisions to be reorganized later. As a result of this second reorganization, the government forces were reduced by 70 regiments. This did not include the units cut down from the 62nd and 70th Armies in Taiwan. After these two reorganizations, the number of armies in the government ground forces was reduced from 89 to 36 and that of divisions from 242 to 150. Of the latter, 96 divisions had yet to be reorganized.

According to the P.C.C. resolutions, the third period of army reorganization should have begun in July, 1946 to further reduce the total number of infantry divisions to 90, each to be composed of two brigades or four regiments, totalling 14,000 men, and some special units numbering 6,300 men. In this period the communist armies were to be reduced to 19 divisions. Communist intransigence and subsequent rebellion stymied this phase of army reorganization.

Army Ranks and Insignia

Rank	*Insignia* (sleeve)	*Insigna* (shoulder)
General, Special Grade *(Lu Chun Te Chi Shang Chiang)*	One red stripe	Five golden stars
General First Grade *(Lu Chun I Chi Shang Chiang)*	One red stripe	Four golden stars
General, Second Grade *(Lu Chun Erh Chi Shang Chiang)*	One red stripe	Three golden stars
Lieutenant-General *(Lu Chun Chung Chiang)*	One red stripe	Two golden stars
Major-General *(Lu Chun Shao Chiang)*	One red stripe	One golden star
Colonel *(Lu Chun Shang Hsiao)*	One yellow stripe	Three plum blossoms
Lieutenant-Colonel *(Lu Chun Chung Hsiao)*	One yellow stripe	Two plum blossoms
Major *(Lu Chun Shao Hsiao)*	One yellow stripe	One plum blossom
Captain *(Lu Chun Shang Wei)*	One blue stripe	Three narrow bars
First-Lieutenant *(Lu Chun Chung Wei)*	One blue stripe	Two narrow bars
Second-Lieutenant *(Lu Chun Shao Wei)*	One blue stripe	One narrow bar
Warrant Officer *(Lu Chun Chun Wei)*	One blue stripe	One square
	Insignia (on collar)	
Master Sergeant *(Lu Chun Shang Shih)*	One blue stripe with three stars	
Sergeant *(Lu Chun Chung Shih)*	One blue stripe with two stars	
Corporal *(Lu Chun Hsia Shih)*	One blue stripe with one star	
Private First Class *(Shang Teng Ping)*	Three Stars	
Private Second Class *(I Teng Ping)*	Two stars	
Private Third Class *(Erh Teng Ping)*	One star	

IV. Important Projects of 1947

The communists started their all-out rebellion in January, 1947. The government was compelled to take military action the following month. But it was not until July 4 that the General Mobilization Order was finally issued. From then on, the quelling of the rebellion has become the pivot of all political and military activities of China.

To maintain military discipline in the rank and file, the Ministry of National Defense established a system of supervision. A supervisor was attached to each division or army, and a supervisory group to each Bandit Suppression Headquarters or Pacification Headquarters. Officers to be assigned to supervisory duties had to undergo training first in the Central Training Corps in Nanking. A special supervisory mission was sent to north China in 1947. A public prosecutor was attached to each directorate of courts-martial.

The personnel administration and the grading system of military officers were improved. The new regulations stipulated that the Ministry of National Defense henceforth would only concern itself with personnel matters and the promotion or discharge of generals. For the transfer or examination of officers below the rank of a full colonel, the power has been delegated by the Ministry to the commandants of Bandit Suppression Headquarters or Pacification Headquarters and divisional or army commanders in the field.

Meanwhile, a new system for the training of military officers was introduced. An officer now must go through four schools in succession. First the Military Academy gives a cadet his basic military training. Then comes the various specialized schools. A graduate of the Military Academy can choose any field he wishes. Afterwards he will enter the Staff College in which advanced courses in strategy and staff work are offered. The final institution is the projected National Defense University, where advanced studies in military sciences are taught and its graduates will form the core of high staff members of the Chinese Army.

In the autumn of 1947, junior classes of various specialized schools under the Army Headquarters were opened. The Staff College was inaugurated in the winter of 1947 and the National Defense University was scheduled to hold its first entrance examination in 1950. Preparations for the opening of a Military Science Institute were being made.

NAVY

The Ministry of Navy was established in 1927. In the following decade it acquired a number of new ships, including the *Hsin Ning, Yung Sui, Min Chuan, Yi Hsien, Min Seng, Ning Hai* and *Ping Hai*. Although they were equipped with newer weapons and were faster, the gross tonnage of each did not exceed 2,600 tons.

When the war broke out in 1937, the Navy had five flotillas of 59 units, totalling 51,286 tons. Many of these were sunk either as a result of enemy action or by the Chinese themselves for the construction of booms across the Yangtze to prevent enemy vessels from moving up the river. At the end of the war only 16 ships in two squadrons were left. The First Squadron consisted of the *Kiang Yuan, Chu Tung, Chu Chien, Chu Kwan, Wei Ning, Yi Nin, Ting An,* and *Ke An;* and the Second Squadron, the *Yung Sui, Min Chuan, Mai Yuan, Ying Teh, Ying Shan, Ying Hao, Fa Ku* and *Hu Chuin.* Most of them were in need of overhauling.

The *Mei Yuan* (American Origin) was formerly the U.S.S. *Tutuila;* the *Ying Teh* (British Virtue), H.M.S. *Falcon;* the *Ying Shan* (British Hero), H.M.S. *Sandpiper.* They were presented to China by the American and British Governments on March 17, 1942.

Immediately after V-J Day, the Naval Headquarters took steps to reorganize the various minelayer squadrons into minesweeper squadrons to clear the China coast of mines in preparation for the resumption of shipping traffic. Meanwhile, it was assigned the task of taking over Japanese vessels and naval installations in China and in Indo-China, north of latitude 16.

Reorganization of Navy Headquarters

The Ministry of Navy was superseded by the Naval Headquarters of the National Military Council in February, 1938. In December, 1945, the Naval Headquarters was abolished and a naval department was created under the Ministry of War. Soon afterwards, a separate Fleet Command was set up in Shanghai to supervise naval operations. In June, 1946, when all military organizations were unified under the Ministry of Defense, the Naval Headquarters was restored.

Under the new Naval Headquarters, there are six divisions: personnel, administration and intelligence, planning and operations, supplies, organization and

training, and technical research. In addition, there are nine departments: general affairs, aides, compilation, medical, courts martial, political training, signal, supervision and budget, and secretariat.

Out in the field, there were four regional bases in 1948, each comprising several patrol stations. The first base was in Shanghai, the second in Tsingtao, the third in Keelung and the fourth in Canton. There were also naval installations in the South Sea islands of Pratas and Paracels. There were two coastal defense squadrons, one river defense squadron and one patrol squadron. Ashore, the Chinese Navy had six garrison battalions besides a marines corp. It also maintained seven shipyards along the coast from Tsingtao and Taku in the north to Canton and Amoy in the south, and several factories which manufacture naval and marine instruments in Shanghai, Pukow, Hankow, Yulin and Tinghai.

Its five naval supply stations were located in Shanghai, Tsingtao, Taipeh, Canton and Nanking and its sub-stations were located in Chinwangtao, Taku, Hankow, Tinghai, Kiangying and Sanya on Hainan island.

The Naval Headquarters moved to Taiwan in 1949. Kaohsiung now serves as its main base.

Enemy and puppet ships taken over after V-J Day totalled over 54,600 tons, the heaviest being 1,100 tons each. Of these, only the *Changchih* and two others were seaworthy. A few were turned over to such government organs as the Ministry of Communications while the heavily damaged were dismounted and their hulls used for scrap iron. Others were repaired and refitted for service on the Yangtze and along the coast.

China was awarded 34 Japanese warships as her share of reparations. These were brought to Tsingtao and Shanghai in 1947 in four groups. As all arms had been removed, they had to be rearmed before incorporation into the Navy. Besides these, China received post-war gifts from the United States and Great Britain. According to the China Aid Bill passed by the U. S. Congress on July 14, 1946, 138 warships including destroyers and other auxiliary ships, would be given to China. Up to October, 1947 the Chinese Navy had received 100 of these. Naval officers and men were sent to America to bring the remaining 38 from the United States and the Philippines. Those in the Philippines were to be towed to China by steamers.

Of the 13 ships which the British promised to give China in compliance with the Sino-British Agreement of 1944, the Chinese Navy has taken over one convoy destroyer and eight patrol boats. Two other ships, *Chungking* (formerly H.M.S. *Aurora*) and *Linfu* (formerly H.M.S. *Mendip*), manned by Chinese officers and crews, were delivered in the summer of 1948. The rest, including two submarines, were to be brought to China by Chinese Naval personnel upon the completion of their training in England.

Training

Before the war, the Naval College at Mamoi in Fukien, which had a number of British officers as instructors, offered courses in the training of naval officers. It was moved to Hunan, then later to Kweichow in September, 1938. After Pearl Harbor, it was moved to Chungking. During the war, naval training stations were established for enlisted men. The Mine and Torpedo Station trained workers in the manufacture and use of mines and torpedoes. Several thousand young naval officers and enlisted men were sent to Great Britain and America as part of the inter-allied joint military effort. Upon completion of their training they were to man Lend-Lease warships transferred to China by the British and American Governments. Some of these officers and men participated in the allied landing in western France in 1944 aboard British warships.

Shortly after V-J Day, a Naval Training Corps was set up in Tsingtao with the help of the American Navy stationed there. Three training stations were also established at Shanghai, Kiangying and Mamoi to give basic training to enlisted men.

A new Naval College was organized in Shanghai in June, 1946. By August it admitted 200 high school graduates, and in November, it absorbed all the undergraduates of the old Naval College in Chungking upon the latter's dissolution.

The training corps in Tsingtao and the naval college in Shanghai were amalgamated in 1947 into a new naval academy located at Tsingtao. The training stations were renamed the Enlisted Men's Corps, to be attached to the Petty Officers School. In addition a Naval Mechanic School was formed in Shanghai.

As of October, 1948, the Naval Academy offered three courses of study:

(1) The Cadet Corps, which trains naval officers in four-years.

(2) The Officers' Training Class, which was a short-term course to prepare officers for advanced training in allied navies.

(3) Special Training Class, which was to familiarize officers and men with the various types of American and British ships which they were to operate later.

The former 1st and 2nd Training Stations were later reorganized into the 1st and 2nd Enlisted Men's Corps, while the 3rd Training Station, renamed the 2nd Petty Officers Corps, trained mechanics. The Naval Signal Class in Nanking, established in 1946, was abolished, and in its place was created the 1st Petty Officers Corps for the training of signalmen. The 3rd Enlisted Men's Corps was organized at Kiangying at the end of 1947. The 1st Petty Officers' Corps was moved from Nanking to Woosung and the 1st Enlisted Men's Corps, from Shanghai to Tsoying in Taiwan.

The Naval Mechanical School was to train mechanics in the manufacture and repair of naval equipment. The first group of 100 students, enlisted in Shanghai in December, 1947, are undergoing a four-year course in shipbuilding, weapons-manufacture, machine-building and telecommunications.

The Chinese Navy continues to send officers and men to allied countries for advanced training. In Great Britain the cadets are studying navigation and shipbuilding in the Imperial Naval College and the Greenwich Naval Academy. In the United States, they are studying naval science ranging from shipbuilding to naval administration in the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Princeton University, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Some of them have returned and are serving in the Chinese Navy.

Other Functions

With the termination of World War II, the Chinese Navy resumed the surveying of sea routes and its meteorological studies such as changes in weather and tide. It has established two survey corps and five tide-recording stations along the coast. It has completed its study around

Naval Ranks and Insignia

Rank	*Insignia* (sleeve)	*Insignia* (shoulder)
Admiral of the Fleet (*Hai Chun Yi Chi Shang Chiang*)	Four medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and four silver stars on golden plate
Admiral (*Hai Chun Shang Chiang*)	Three medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and three silver stars on golden plate
Vice-Admiral (*Hai Chun Chung Chiang*)	Two medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and two silver stars on golden plate
Rear-Admiral (*Hai Chun Shao Chiang*)	One medium golden stripe over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and one silver star on golden plate
Commodore (*Hai Chun Tai Chiang*)	One broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors on golden plate
Captain (*Hai Chun Shang Hsiao*)	Four medium golden stripes	One anchor and three silver stars on two golden bars
Commander (*Hai Chun Chung Hsiao*)	Three medium golden stripes	One anchor and two silver stars on two golden bars
Lieutenant - Commander (*Hai Chun Shao Hsiao*)	Two medium golden stripes over one narrow golden stripe	One anchor and one silver star on golden bars
Lieutenant (*Hai Chun Shang Wei*)	Two medium golden stripes	Three silver stars on three narrow golden bars
Sub-Lieutenant (*Hai Chun Chung Wei*)	One medium golden stripe over one narrow golden stripe	Two silver stars on three narrow golden bars
Sub-Lieutenant (*Hai Chun Shao Wei*)	One medium golden stripe	One silver star on three narrow golden bars

the Paracel Islands and the area around Kiangying in the lower Yangtze. The Navy also has compiled ebb-tide records for all important ports in China. It has prepared plans to survey all the harbors on the coast.

The Navy maintained three weather groups in the Pratas and Paracel Islands and three weather stations at Sanya, Tinghai and Tsoying. In March, 1947, Ku Wei-han, director of the Survey Bureau for Sea Routes, was delegated by the Chinese Navy to attend the 5th plenary session of the International Sea Routes Survey Association. His mission was to better the relations between the Chinese survey workers and their colleagues in other countries.

The Naval Headquarters is also responsible for the security of China's sea areas. Whether on regular sea routes or in fishing areas, its regional commands offer protection to Chinese as well as foreign vessels.

Closure of Communist-held Ports

On June 20, 1949, the Executive Yuan announced the temporary closure of the Communist-held seaports in central and north China. This covers the sea areas from the estuary of the Min river (119° 40′ E and 26° 15′ N), to the estuary of the Liao Ho (122° 20′ E and 40° 30′ N). The measure was extended to south China after the loss of Canton in October, 1949.

The ports temporarily closed to shipping and navigation include Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Chinwangtao, Wenchow and Ningpo. In blockading the ports, the Chinese Navy plays a major part. The closure has proved highly effective (October, 1949).

AIR FORCE

The Military Advisory Council of the Manchu Government in Peiping built an airplane testing factory at Nanyuan in 1910, and bought a bi-plane from France for experimental purposes. That was the beginning of China's aeronautical enterprise.

In March, 1911, Feng Ju, a U. S.-born Chinese demonstrated flying over Yentang near Canton in his own plane which he had brought with him from America. It created a sensation. Unfortunately, he was killed when his plane crashed.

After the founding of the Republic, the revolutionary army in Canton bought two monoplanes from Austria. They were meant for combat purposes, but actually were not so used as the country had then been unified. At the same time, the Peking Government purchased 12 planes from France and established an aviation school at Nanyuan, which was the first air training institute in China.

Airplanes took part in actual fighting in China for the first time in 1913, when the Inner Mongolian rebellious army fiercely assaulted Dolonor. The Peking Government than dispatched a plane to assist the ground forces in repelling the invasion. The mere appearance of the strange bird in the sky scared the rebels away.

In 1917, when General Chang Hsun tried to restore the Manchu rule, his attempt was almost nipped in the bud by Marshall Tuan Chi-jui's planes at Nanyuan. It was Tuan who reorganized the Nanyuan Aviation Academy into a temporary air force headquarters and mobilized all the planes available to bomb the Temple of Heaven and the Imperial Palaces then occupied by Chang's troops. The rebels immediately surrendered.

An Air Force Bureau was created by the Revolutionary Government in Canton in 1920. It had two squadrons. Three years later, Yang Hsien-yi, director of the bureau, returned from abroad with more aircraft. The recapture of Canton after its seizure by rebels, in June, 1922, was made possible largely by the help given by Yang's air force.

Growth of the Chinese Air Force

The formation of a modern Chinese Air Force began in 1928. The Nationalist Revolutionary Forces then had three squadrons of army planes and one squadron of naval planes, totalling 24.

In November that year, over 80 cadets of the Central Military Academy in Nanking volunteered to join the new Air Force Corps. Colonel Chang Ching-yu was appointed the commandant. The corps was officially inaugurated in November, 1929. However, in June, 1930, it was reorganized into an air force class under Colonel Huang Ping-heng. Several training planes donated by overseas Chinese were used.

The first air force class was graduated in March, 1931. One-third of them died in combat during the Japanese war, while the surviving members have become senior officers in the Chinese Air Force.

On July 1, 1931, the air force class was expanded to become the Central Aviation School under the Ministry of War in Nanking. In December that year, the school was moved to Chienchiao near Hangchow. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was the president of the school with Colonel (now Air Major-General) Mao Pang-chu as commandant.

The aviation school under the Ministry of War was reorganized into the Central Aviation School on May 1, 1932. An American advisory mission, led by Colonel J. H. Jouett, and composed of ten flying instructors, five mechanics and one air force surgeon, assisted in the training. The cadets first saw action in November, 1933, when they were ordered to help crush a rebellion started by some dissident officers of the 19th Route Army in Fukien province.

Early in 1935 there was a slight change in aviation education in China. The school originally had two classes. Class B remained at Chienchiao while Class A was first moved to Nanchang in Kiangsi province and later to Loyang in Honan. An Italian mission was attached to the Loyang branch. Gradually, there developed some disagreement over principles of training. It was decided in 1936 that cadets admitted at Loyang should also go to Hangchow to receive the American type of training.

In July, 1936, a new branch was established in Canton. It was then ruled that the branches could now only offer primary training. For secondary and advanced training the cadets must attend the main school at Chienchiao.

Along with the growth of the aviation school, the Chinese Air Force gradually expanded. In 1934, it had eight squadrons, which were increased to 14 the following year. More planes were bought from the United States. In 1936, the whole country was divided into six air force regions, each with several squadrons of planes carrying modern equipment.

When the war broke out in July, 1937, the Chinese Air Force had 602 pilots and 230 mechanics and technicians. They were organized into nine groups with a total strength of 305 planes of all types. Though a small force in comparison with what the big powers had at that time, it gave a good account of itself in the war against Japan.

Chinese Air Force at War

The Japanese High Command used 200 planes in their campaign in north China after the Lukouchiao "Incident" in July, 1937. When the war spread to Shanghai in August, 247 planes of the Japanese Navy based at Taiwan or sent by the Japanese 3rd Fleet on the East China Sea made continuous raids on defenseless cities in southeastern China. Although the Chinese Air Force shot down a number of them, the Japanese aircraft were constantly reinforced, and their strength was steadily maintained.

The total strength of the Chinese Air Force was smaller than that of Japan's first-line planes. Besides, it found difficulties in replacing its losses. Soon the Japanese achieved supremacy of the air over China's skies.

On August 14, 1937, planes of the Chinese Air Force based at Hangchow bombed Japanese strongholds and ships in the Shanghai-Woosung area. A formation of Japanese planes retaliated the same day. In an ensuing air battle over Chienchiao, cradle of the Chinese Air Force, six Japanese aircraft were shot down. This was the first Chinese air victory. That day has since then been designated by the Government as China's Air Force Day.

The next three days, 44 more Japanese planes were shot down. In spite of this, the enemy remained numerically superior. The Chinese Air Force had to resort to night raids. Its overall performance during 1937 may be summed up as follows:

(1) Bombing:	
Number of raids	238
Ammunition used	169 tons
Enemy ships sunk	4
Number of planes used	858
Enemy planes destroyed on ground	10
Enemy ships damaged	22
(2) Air battles:	
Number of engagements	73
Enemy planes shot down	83
Planes used	367
Enemy planes damaged	4

In 1938, with the help given by the Soviet Volunteer Group, the Chinese Air Force fought to regain air domination over Hsuchow, Hankow and Canton. In a battle over Hankow on February 18, the enemy lost 12 planes. On April 10, six more Japanese aircraft were shot down over Kweiteh in Honan; on April 29, 21 over Hankow, and on May 31, 11 more over Hankow. On May 19, a formation of Chinese planes made a surprise raid on Japan proper but dropped pamphlets instead of bombs. The Chinese Air Force also scored victories in two battles over northern Kwangtung and one battle over Nanchang in Kiangsi.

The Chinese Air Force fought gallantly during and after the Battle of Hankow. Its planes made daily sorties against

enemy naval units in the Wuchang-Hukow area along the Yangtze, sinking, up to the end of September, 1938, 12 Japanese vessels, damaging 29 others and shooting down 13 enemy planes. The performance record of the Chinese Air Force during 1938 was as follows:

(1) Bombing:

Number of raids	167
Ammunition used	254 tons
Enemy ships damaged	75
Planes used	867
Enemy ships sunk	17

(2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	121
Enemy planes shot down	115
Planes used	706

In 1940, the enemy increased his first-line planes to 600, attempting to subdue China by the sheer might of air force. Practically no major city behind the Chinese front was spared from Japanese air bombardment.

The small and depleted Chinese Air Force was unable to retaliate against this powerful enemy who now came by the hundreds. What they could do was to attack the enemy bombers after the latter had completed their mission and their pursuit escorts had left. Beginning August 13, Japanese planes came in even bigger formation and new planes of the Zero-type were used. The Chinese Air Force, being no match at all, sustained heavy losses, until only 65 planes were left in use. The Chinese High Command decided to avoid air battles altogether and sent all officers of the air force to India for training, regrouping and for the taking over of new planes from America. The performance record of the Chinese Air Force for 1940 was as follows:

(1) Bombing:

Number of raids	29
Ammunition used	100 tons
Enemy ships wrecked	4
Planes used	241
Enemy planes damaged	18

(2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	51
Enemy planes shot down	27
Planes used	965
Enemy planes damaged	30

In 1941, 100 P-40B fighters were bought from the United States under a credit arrangement. Chungking, utterly devoid of air defense, was raided 45 times. Many other cities in southwestern and northwestern China were also bombed. The Japanese planes went everywhere unchallenged.

In August 1941, 250 American volunteers under Major-General (then Colonel) Claire L. Chennault came to China. The Flying Tigers fought brilliantly in the defense of the Burma Road. Over Iliang, Rangoon and Leiyuan, they shot down more than 60 Japanese planes.

The performance record of the Chinese Air Force in 1941, excluding that of the American Volunteer Group, was as follows:

(1) Bombing:

Number of raids	3
Planes used	23

(2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	5
Enemy planes shot down	13
Planes used	104

In 1942, the AVG did most of the air fighting in the China Theater. Occasionally, planes of the Chinese Air Force cooperated with the AVG to check the advance of Japanese troops on the west bank of the Salween river in western Yunnan. Chinese bombers raided Lashio, Lungling and the Salween river front more than 20 times. The Chinese Air Force also took part in the battle of Chekiang and Kiangsi. Its planes bombed Shangjao, Chuhsien and Kinghwa.

In the Summer of 1942, the AVG was reorganized into the 14th Air Force of the U. S. Army. During the six months before the reorganization took place, the Flying Tigers made 102 sorties, shot down 193 enemy planes, wrecked 75, damaged 40, possibly wrecked another 60, and destroyed 112 trucks and 15 warehouses. For all these it lost only 20 volunteers, with four others missing.

The performance record of the Chinese Air Force for 1942 was as follows:

(1) Bombing:

Number of raids	72
Enemy planes wrecked	30
Planes used	309
Enemy ships wrecked	4

(2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	33
Enemy planes shot down	95
Planes used	682
Enemy planes damaged	7

The Chinese Air Force personnel, having completed their training in India, returned to China with new planes in 1943. They were immediately organized into five groups and one Chinese-American Composite Wing. Their planes, combined with those of the U. S. 14th Air Force, which was led by General Chennault and

Chinese Air Force Performance Record in Three Important Campaigns

	Honan	*Hunan*	*Kwangsi*
Sorties	119	349	316
Enemy planes shot down	87	70	70
Enemy planes bombed and destroyed	79	529	24
Enemy planes possibly shot down or destroyed	6	39	14
Railway stations bombed	33	13	8
Junks bombed and destroyed	40	2,529	1,000
Steamers bombed and destroyed	....	...	120
Bridges bombed and destroyed	16	15	20
Locomotives bombed and destroyed	22	....	...
Trucks bombed and destroyed	1,931	1,858	20

stationed near the Hunan-Kweichow front, added up to more than 200 in the China Theater.

The outbreak of the Pacific War reduced the strength of the Japanese Air Force in China considerably. Initiative in the air gradually passed into Chinese hands. In the western Hupeh campaign, the Chinese Air Force made 216 sorties, shot down 25 enemy planes and destroyed 12 others on the ground. This paved the way for the victory of the Chinese troops at Changteh in western Hunan.

In 1944, the enemy mustered 260 planes to assist their ground forces for a decisive campaign in Honan. The Chinese Air Force met the enemy offensive with two groups, totalling 36 bombers and 120 pursuits, based at Ankang and Nancheng in Shensi, and Chungking, Liangshan and Chengtu in Szechwan.

The Japanese used 168 planes in the Hunan-Kwangsi battle. The Chinese Air Force, fighting shoulder to shoulder with the U. S. 14th Air Force, had at its disposal 68 bombers and 113 fighters, based at Kweilin, Tanchu, Chihkiang, Nanhsiung, Suian and Chengtu. For the first time in the Sino-Japanese war the invaders were outnumbered and they lost heavily.

The Japanese Air Force sank to a new low in 1945. In the campaign on the Anhwei-Hupeh border, the Chinese Air Force assisted the ground forces in five engagements: First, together with the army, it inflicted over 4,000 casualties on the enemy, killing among others the commander of the Japanese 110th Division; second, by strafing and bombing, it alone killed 1,500 Japanese soldiers at Sichiakow and Towfutien; third, in cooperation with the ground forces again, it wiped out over 1,300 Japanese troops; fourth, it annihilated another 1,500 Japanese in the same manner; and fifth, by strafing alone, it killed 3,400 Japanese at the narrow passage of Shihhowei and Chatowkow. In all, the Chinese bombers made 159 sorties and its fighters completed 149 missions in two months.

In the western Hunan campaign, the 2nd and 5th Groups and part of the 1st Group of the Chinese Air Force took part in the fighting and annihilated one whole Japanese regiment at Fangtung. Between April 10 and May 12, the 5th Group made 700 sorties, the 2nd Group, two, and the 1st Group, 25. The result was the decisive victory in western Hunan.

The following figures show the damages suffered by Chinese civilians as a result of enemy bombings and the total performance record of the Chinese Air Force in the war:

Civilian Casualties and Damages in Enemy Air Raids:

Number of raids	12,144
Number of planes used	24,948
Number of bombs dropped	213,565
Civilians killed	335,943
Civilians wounded	426,249

Performance Record of the Chinese Air Force:

Sorties	3,337
Engagements	151
Reconnaissance missions	210
Fighter covers	151
Parachutists dropped	42
Enemy planes shot down	1,543
Enemy planes damaged	330

Education

Organized education for the Chinese Air Force began in May, 1932 when the Central Aviation School was established at Chienchiao near Hangchow. This school had graduated six classes of cadets before the war broke out in 1937, whereupon the school was moved to Kunming in Yunnan and Suifu in Szechwan. In 1942, lower class cadets were sent to Lahore in India. They were soon followed by the rest of the school. Altogether 10,879 air cadets were trained up to this period.

When war threatened the Indian border, the Chinese Government arranged with the U. S. Government to set up three training centers for Chinese flyers studying in Colorado, Arizona and Texas. By V-J Day, several hundred trainees had returned to China and many of them were on combat duty in the last few months of the war. At the time of the Japanese surrender, there were still 2,000 Chinese cadets under training in America. Even after the war, large numbers of Chinese air cadets were sent to America for training.

After V-J Day, the Central Aviation School was moved back to Chienchiao near Hangchow. The Air Force Technical School and the Air Force Preparatory School remained in the interior.

The Air Force Preparatory School, located at Kwanhsien, Szechwan, was established in 1940. It admits boys from 12 to 15 years of age and gives them, apart from the usual formal education, special training to develop their physique and air fitness. Work includes the opportunity to familiarize themselves with model planes, gliders, motor vehicles, and internal combustion engines. Upon graduation, they are admitted to the air schools for further training as air or ground crews.

The Central Aviation School has been renamed the Chinese Air Force Cadet School. It has six departments: navigation, bombing, meteorology, gliding, photography, and gunnery. Graduates of junior middle schools may enroll in its junior course and those of senior middle schools in its senior course.

The Air Force Technical School trains aircraft mechanics. It was established in 1936 and has trained several thousand technicians. This school has drawn up a plan to give refresher training to all ground crews of the Chinese Air Force.

The Air Force Communication School was established in 1940 to train radio operators and radio engineers.

For advanced studies, there is the Air Force Staff School which trains staff officers. Air officers on active service are admited after passing strict entrance examinations. After their graduation, they serve as staff and commanding officers in the various air units. British instructors were engaged during the war to teach in the school.

Finally, there was the Air Force Non-Commissioned Officers' School, organized in 1938. Besides training pilots, it has turned out a number of air gunners. The school was suspended after the graduation of its sixth class. Pilots trained by this school were commissioned and assigned to various squadrons.

C.A.F. Performance after V-J Day

After V-J Day, the air force organization underwent a change. In place of the 14 regions, five air force areas were created. In each, there was a number of base operation headquarters.

The Chinese Air Force played an important part in the campaign against the communists. Between February and April 1947, its planes attacked communist rebels in the Taierhchuang-Tsaochuang area in western Shantung and along the Grand Canal. In the recapture of Yenan in northern Shensi, the air force assisted the ground forces in reconnaissance and strafing.

Before and during the fighting in the Yimeng hills in central Shantung, the air force went into action daily over Tsingtuoshih, Tienmakwan, Tsining, Linchu, Nanma and Feihsien. They inflicted more than 4,000 casualties on the rebels at Linchu and Tsining.

In the eastern Shantung campaign, Government planes bombed Chefoo and Lungkow and also communist vessels in the harbors. They also supported ground forces in attacking Takuho and in the battle of Fanchiatsi.

In the six campaigns in the Northeastern Provinces government planes bombed rebel strongholds and communication lines. Other planes supported ground forces defending Szepingkai and Kirin. They wiped out over 1,000 communists on the west bank of the Liao river by strafing and took port in the fighting around Changwu and Sinlitun.

Three rebel assaults on Yulin in northern Shensi were checked as a result of the support given by the air force, which routed more than 1,000 rebel troops south of Linshaota.

Communist roving bands in the Yellow river flooded area, western Honan, and in Tapiehshan and Tahungshan areas, were constantly bombed and strafed by government planes.

Since June, 1949, the C.A.F., in cooperation with the Navy, has been playing an important part in the blockading of the seaports in north and central China which were under communist occupation.

Parachuting

Training for parachute troops in China was started in 1944 at Kangtowtsun near Kunming. In April, 1945, an Army Storm Corps of parachute troops was created.

This parachute work was divided into three courses: arms, combat, and parachuting. A Parachutists' School was also set up to train officers.

During the war, the Chinese parachute troops made several landings in the Japanese rear. On July 11, 1945, they occupied Loting and Kaiping on the Kwangtung border in the campaign for Nankiangkow. On the 18th, they landed at Tanchu and seized the airfield. On the 27th, they captured several points in the outskirts of Hengyang.

they entered western Shantung to wipe out the remnants of communists. Meanwhile, the 1st company in the northeast was ordered back. It defeated Chen Yi's rebels at Suhsien in northern Kiangsu. In October, northeastern Anhwei was cleared of communists, and the parachute troops were generally credited with the security of the southern section of the Tientsin-Pukow railway.

In November that year, when the situation around Hsuchow became tense, the parachutists were moved up to fight the rebels at Tangshan aond Hsiaohsien. In December, they advanced on Fenghsien, Yutai, and Kinghsiang and penetrated in-

Air Force Ranks and Insignia

Rank	*Shoulder Insignia*
Air General (*Kung Chun Shang Chiang*)	An eagle and three narrow bars over two broad bars
Air Lieutenant-General (*Kung Chun Chung Chiang*)	An eagle and two narrow bars over two broad bars
Air Major-General (*Kung Chun Shao Chiang*)	An eagle and one narrow bar over two broad bars
Air Colonel (*Kung Chun Shang Hsiao*)	An eagle and three narrow bars over one broad bar
Air Lieutenant-Colonel (*Kung Chun Chung Hsiao*)	An eagle and two narrow bars over one broad bar
Air Major (*Kung Chun Shao Hsiao*)	An eagle and one narrow bar over one broad bar
Air Captain (*Kung Chun Shang Wei*)	An eagle over three narrow bars
Air First Lieutenant (*Kung Chun Chung Wei*)	An eagle over two narrow bars
Air Second Lieutenant (*Kung Chun Shao Wei*)	An eagle over one narrow bar

After V-J Day, the parachute troops were airlifted to Nanking. Groups were later sent to the Northeastern Provinces to help occupy Changchun and Mukden.

The Army Storm Corps was reorganized into a Parachutist Corps on March 16, 1946, and Major General Ma Shih-kung was appointed its commander. In May, it was again expanded to form the Parachutist Headquarters with newly-obtained equipment and weapons. Portions were organized into fast-moving column to fight communist rebels in Shantung.

The parachute troops were transferred to the Chushan islands for training in June, 1946, in prepartion for landings at the Changshan island off northern Shantung coast. In July, they assisted in dislodging the communists from the Yimeng hills in central Shantung. In the middle of August, seven groups of parachute troops ambushed a numerically stronger communist force under Liu Po-cheng at Yucheng and Shangchiu. In September, to western Shantung, and scored successes at Niuwuku and Mulichuang.

COMBINED SERVICE FORCES

The Headquarters of the Combined Service Forces came into existence on June 1, 1946 as one of the four groups under the Ministry of National Defense. It was abolished in August, 1949, when its functions were put under the direct control of the ministry.

In the first days of the revolution in the late twenties, service forces occupied but a minor position in the Chinese military organization. Before the Sino-Japanese War broke out in 1937, the second department of the Capital Defense Corps under the former National Military Council took care of army transportation, and the Directorate of Supplies under the Directorate-General of Military Training was in charge of army supplies. Under the Ministry of War were the Ordnance,

Finance and Army Medical Administrations, the Department of Communications, and the Gendarmerie, all of which dealt with supplies and service for the Chinese armed forces. There was no centralized organization.

After the Lukouchiao "Incident," a Board of Transport and Supplies was created under the National Military Council, and unified under it was transportation — railway, river, animals and manpower, and signal. Supplies and other related matters were still separately handled by the Ministry of War and the Board of Military Training.

In February, 1945, the Board was reorganized into the Headquarters of Service Forces, still under the National Military Council. But practically no change took place in regard to its nature and functions.

When the National Military Council was abolished in June, 1946, and the Ministry of National Defense was established to replace it, the Headquarters of Rear Service Forces became the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces.

Modeled after a pattern devised by the Combined Services Division of the U. S. Army Advisory Group, this system was composed of eight directorates or administrations, eleven departments, one gendamerie headquarters and one secretariat.

The eight directorates or administrations are: Transportation, Signal, Quartermaster, Ordnance, Medical, Finance, Engineering, and Special Service (education and recreation).

The eleven departments are: Planning, Personnel, Information, Service, Supplies, Training, Materials and Research, Court-Martial, General Affairs, Foreign Relations, and Pensions.

Out in the field, there were eight Regional Supply Headquarters directly under the supervision of the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces in 1948. These were:

Transportation

The Headquarters of the Combined Service Forces, after its inauguration in 1946, established railway transportation headquarters at Nanking, Peiping, Chengchow, Hankow, Pukow and Hengyang; river transportation headquarters at Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Canton, Chungking, Tientsin, Chinwangtao, and Hulutao; and highway transportation centers at Chungking, Paocheng, Lanchow, Kweiyang, and Chanyi.

In 1948, a new united service was established in accordance with American suggestions, which unified the command of railway, highway and river transportations into one single outfit. New offices were created in Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Chungking, Peiping, Tientsin, Hulutao, Canton and Hengyang.

Finance

The pay for officers and men in the armed forces was raised in August, 1947 in order to bolster their morale. Hitherto, army personnel had been paid two to five times less than civil servants of corresponding rank. In the past, army finance and quartermaster work all came under the same department. Under the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces, a separate Quartermaster Directorate was organized, making it independent of its fianance department.

The bookkeeping of the combat forces and all departments of the Ministry of National Defense is also kept separately, each responsible for compiling and examining its own allotments, expenditures and audits. Overall budgetary affairs are under the control of the Ministry of National Defense with the military accounts being handled exclusively by the Finance Directorate. No other business department of the Ministry can deal directly with cash.

	Locality	*Areas Serviced*
1st	Shanghai	Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Fukien, eastern Kiangsi
2nd	Hankow	Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, southern Honan
3rd	Canton	Kwangsi, Kwangtung
4th	Chungking	Szechwan, Sikang, Kweichow, Yunnan
5th	Peiping	Hopei, Chahar, Shansi, Suiyuan, eastern Hopei
6th	Mukden	Nine Northeastern Provinces, Jehol, eastern Hopei
7th	Sian	Shensi, Honan, eastern Kansu, northern Hupeh, southern Shantung, southern Hopei
8th	Lanchow	Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Sinkiang

The Headquarters distributed equipment, food, clothes, fuel and fodder to the combat forces through its supply organizations. Formerly, the field units themselves bought whatever they needed. This innovation has eliminated many of the inconveniences and irregularities.

Breeding of Horses

Horses play an important part in China's defense problem. For more than a hundred years, the breeding of horses interested only a few people. This explains why China has only about 1,500,000 horses, compared to Russia's 10,500,000 and the United States' 13,000,000.

To improve this, the horse department of the Directorate of the Quartermaster worked out a ten-year plan, aimed at setting up 12 breeding branches, 28 stables (both owning 4,350 breeding horses and 30,000 breeding mares), 8 military ranches with 1,500 breeding horses and 30,000 mares, and 5 veterinary bureaus.

Thus far three such ranches have been established at Chingchen in Kweichow, Sungming in Yunnan and Minhsien in Szechwan which are stocked with 67 Arabian steeds and 1,250 young horses of Japanese, Chinese, Mongolian, Turkistan and mixed breeds. Connected with these are 25 stables to improve horses for civilian use. Between 1939 and 1945, 25,000 horses were cross-bred at these stables. In 1946, 12,000 more horses for civilian use were cross-bred.

There is a stable in Sichang in Sikang; four military ranches at Shantan, Yungteng and Mahanshan in Kansu and Kweiteh in Chinghai, and a Northwestern Horse Administration office in Lanchow.

Three military horse supply stations have been created to supervise the equestrian problem for the army. The Chinese army, at its October, 1948 strength, needs more than 400,000 horses and at least 50,000 replacements a year. But it now has 200,000 horses and mules. In 1947, various units of the army requested 100,000 animals; the directorate could get them only 7,985.

To meet this demand, the directorate has appealed to the Ministry of National Defense and the Executive Yuan to get 2,000 breeding horses and 50,000 cavalry steeds from Japan as war indemnity and also to negotiate with the United States to include 56,650 horses for military use in her China aid program.

Veterinary

The veterinary school established in 1908 was first moved from Peiping to Nanking in 1935, then to Yiyang and Hungkiang in Hunan and finally to Anshun in Kweichow in 1937. A branch was set up in Lanchow at the end of 1942. Between July, 1936 and November, 1946, the school graduated 1,892 students. However, it was suspended in October, 1945. In August and September, 1946, seven veterinarians were sent to the United States for advanced study.

Four veterinary hospitals were opened in July, 1938. Up to the end of October, 1946, they had treated 101,879 wounded or sick horses and mules. The 1st and 4th were disbanded at the war's end, the 2nd was moved from Sian to Peiping, and the 3rd to Hsuchow.

The practice in the past was for the field units to buy medical supplies needed for the animals, then have the headquarters reimburse them. In August, 1937, an army veterinary godown was established at Hsuancheng in Anhwei, which began to manufacture and purchase tools and medicines for the army. On April 1, 1946, the godown was reorganized into a general veterinary depot and two branches were set up in the 2nd and 8th Supply Regions.

China received in the spring of 1946 more than 8,000 tons of veterinary materials from the Japanese as reparations.

Medical Corps

The Medical Administration is striving to train enough personnel for its medical units for the armed forces, to procure and manufacture sufficient quantities of medical supplies, and to improve facilities for the wounded and sick soldiers.

In China today, there are 30,000 qualified medical personnel, including doctors, surgeons, dentists, nurses and pharmacists. But only 2,700 of these are serving the armed forces. There are 13,000 more medical workers in the army but they are not adequately trained. In all, the total does not exceed 16,700. For China's peacetime army of 1,500,000 troops she would need at least 31,200 medical personnel, or 2.08% of the number of troops.

The Medical Administration established a Medical Center in Shanghai in 1946 for the purpose of training in the next five years 500 army doctors and surgeons annually. The prime objective was to build up a corps of 30,000 qualified army doctors and surgeons within a period of 20 years. In cooperation with the Ministries of Education and Health, the administration also expects to extend the medical center system to north, south,

west China and northeast China. It has sent promising army medical personnel abroad for advanced studies. The first group of 114 doctors and surgeons left for the United States in 1946; the second group left in 1947.

There was a general scarcity of medical supplies during the war because of enemy blockade. American lend-lease materials which reached Free China before V-J Day totalled only around 300 tons. Another 1,500 tons were received after the war. After Japanese surrender most of the U. S. Army medical supplies were taken over by UNRRA. Of this 1,200 tons were given to the administration.

Engineering

The Engineering Administration is a new department. Before its establishment, the distribution and storage of engineering supplies for the armed forces were entrusted to the Ordnance Administration and the Engineering Department of the Ministry of War. There was no overall plan or special organization charged with the maintenance and storage of engineering equipment. Moreover, most of the personnel responsible for the work were not specially trained.

Since the creation of the Engineering Administration, special godowns have been constructed at strategic points throughout the country. Inspectors supervise the distribution and disposition of goods. New engineering materials transferred to China by the U. S. armed forces in Okinawa, Tientsin and Shanghai are being used to equip new engineering units in the Chinese armed forces. Similarly, Japanese equipment received since V-J Day is being utilized. Future plans call for the construction of maintenance and manufacturing plants to make the organization self-sufficient.

Special Service

The Special Service Administration is also an entirely new organization, responsible for the welfare of the armed forces. Lt. Gen. J. L. Huang has added these facilities to the organization since he became its head:

1. Cooperatives: 36.
2. Broadcasting Service: 20 mobile units and 6 stations.
3. Movies: 10 units for 35 mm. films and 30 units for 16 mm. films.
4. Drama: 11 units for stage performances, 45 units for other shows.
5. Sports: Swimming pools, libraries and athletic fields are under construction in all centers.
6. Entertainment: An officers' club was established in Nanking. Four barracks for the accommodation of troops were erected near the railway stations at Pukow and Nanking. Similar clubs and barracks were constructed in Mukden, Tientsin, Wuchang and Hankow in October, 1948. Each was furnished with a cooperative store, library, dispensary, post office, theater facilities, athletic equipment and food counters.

Pension

The pension system was revised recently. Procedures of payment were simplified. Numerous stations were set up at the front to expedite the payment.

Beginning in October, 1947, front line pension departments were created under the military commands at Mukden, Peiping, Sian, Hsuchow and Hankow. After termination of a major battle, the recipients were paid on the spot.

Payment under this system has these advantages: (1) results of investigations and inquiries are more accurate; (2) payment is simplified; (3) officers and men with minor injuries can be sent back to their original units without unnecessary delay; and (4) delay in the applying for the pension is eliminated when survivors make their applications on the spot.

Wounded soldiers are taken care of in the following manner:

1. Those who have families are to be sent home.
2. Those who had jobs before the war and who are not physically handicapped to work again will be given their old jobs.
3. Those who were disabled or who had no employment before are given vocational training and are provided with some means of livelihood.
4. Those who are willing to become farmers will be given land.
5. Those who are fairly well-educated and wish to continue their studies will be sent back to school.
6. Those who are unfit for any employment and who have no families are allowed to remain in army hospitals and live on Government stipends.

The Ministry of National Defense has put these measures into practice first in southeastern and southwestern China and later in north China. Soldiers wounded in the communist suppression campaign are treated the same as those wounded in the Sino-Japanese War.

Gendarmerie

Modern gendarmerie in China was created in 1926.

When President Chiang Kai-shek launched the Northern Expedition, the first gendarme company of the Whampao Military Academy was enlarged into a battalion, then into a regiment in July, 1926. After Nanking was taken, it developed into two regiments under the direction of the Garrison Headquarters of the national capital.

The present Gendarme Headquarters, organized on January 16, 1932, is composed of 27 regular regiments, 3 training regiments, 3 independent battalions and one special battalion. One platoon was sent to Japan in 1947 to protect Chinese organizations in that country.

Education

The Combined Service Headquarters maintain eleven schools to train its personnel. They are: Ordnance, Transportation, Gendarmerie, Engineering, Signal, Veterinary, Special Service, Adjutant Affairs, Procurement and Finance. Another combined service school trains instructors for these schools.

Ordnance

China still relys on other countries for military supplies. For this reason the Chinese army is equipped with weapons and ammunition of various kinds and makes. In 1935, the Ordnance Administration worked out a five-year plan to unify all materials, using as much as possible those manufactured by the country's own arsenals.

At the time of the Sino-Japanese war, the readjustment in light arms was nearly completed. Most of the troops were using rifles of Chungchen style, Czechoslovakian light machineguns, Maxim heavy machineguns and 82mm. trench mortars.

China obtained much of her early war supplies from Germany, Denmark and Soviet Russia. Later they were augmented by American lend-lease materials.

China's production of light arms in the middle of 1947 met only 70 to 90 percent of her demands. She manufactured no heavy weapons. As for ammunition she produced only 3% of the bullets and 20% of the shells she needed.

Chinese arsenals are too busily engaged in fulfilling consumption needs. Little opportunity has been found to improve on the anachronistic features of equipment. At present, 65 percent of the equipment being used by the Chinese forces is of Chinese manufacture; 25 percent, American; and 10 percent, Japanese.

CHAPTER 9

JUDICIAL SYSTEM AND POLICE

I. COURTS

The Chinese judicial system has three grades of courts: the district court, the high court, and the supreme court. It allows three trials.

Cases involving offenses against the internal sovereignty of the state, the external sovereignty of the state, or the friendly relations of foreign states are first tried by the high court. All other cases are heard by the district court or its equivalent, (the *hsien* judicial section or, sometimes, the *hsien* government), while the second trial of such cases is held by the high court or its branches (branch high courts.) The Supreme Court holds the final hearings on all civil and criminal cases.

In certain civil cases, court decisions must be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they are enforced. These include primarily (1) cases involving property rights on which third trials can be held; (2) cases of personal procedure such as divorce and child adoption, and (3) cases involving foreign nationals. Into the second category fall all cases to which the Law Governing the Actions Concerning Status (in the Civil Procedural Law) is applicable.

According to the Organic Law of Chinese Courts, there shall be a court in each *hsien* and municipality. Several small *hsien,* however, may share one court while an unusually large *hsien* may have one court and a number of branch courts.

A five-year program for the establishment of more courts for first and second trials was launched in 1941 by the Ministry of Justice. Because of the war and financial and other difficulties, this program was only partially completed up to the end of 1948.

Before July, 1937, there were in all of China (excluding the northeast and Jehol province) 417 courts of different grades, most of which were located in the southeastern parts of the country. During and after the war new courts were established in interior provinces.

High Courts and District Courts

At the end of June, 1948, China had 909 courts including 37 high courts, 119 branch high courts and 753 district courts. There was a high court in each of the country's 35 provinces while Nanking and Shanghai were the only two of the 12 special municipalities to have one such court each. In addition, there were 1,187 *hsien* judicial sections as against 711 at the commencement of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937. (see Table 1.)

The *hsien* judicial sections—judicial section in a *hsien* government—were not full-fledged courts. They only relieved the *hsien* magistrates of their concurrent judicial duties, which had been the practice in those *hsien* which had no regular courts. By June, 1948, this practice had been abolished except in the northwestern province of Sinkiang where, pending the establishment of courts or judicial sections, the magistrates of the 66 *hsien* still wielded full judicial authority, serving sometimes as procurators and sometimes as judges. Meanwhile, a program was adopted to convert all *hsien* judicial sections into regular district courts within a stipulated period in accordance with a resolution passed by the National Judicial Conference held in Nanking, November 5-12, 1947.

The procedure followed in the *hsien* judicial sections differs from that prevalent in the regular courts. As a precautionary measure, decisions passed by the former must, prior to their enforcement, be reviewed and approved by the high court or branch high court. If errors are found the *hsien* judicial section must retry the case in question. Whenever necessary, the reviewing court may take over the case or assign one of its own judges to preside at the retrial.

The Criminal Procedural Law provides that death penalties must be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they are executed. Whenever necessary, the Ministry may order the Procuratorate of the

Table 1.—Courts and *Hsien* Judicial Sections in Various Provinces and Muincipalities June, 1948

Province or Municipality	High Court	Branch High Court	District Court	*Hsien* Judicial Section	Total
Nanking	1	..	1	..	2
Shanghai	1	..	1	..	2
Kiangsu	1	4	31	28	64
Chekiang	1	5	43	33	82
Anhwei	1	6	21	41	69
Kiangsi	1	6	22	56	85
Hupeh	1	6	34	37	78
Hunan	1	5	17	60	83
Szechwan	1	11	68	75	155
Sikang	1	2	10	27	40
Hopei	1	8	16	119	144
Shantung	1	7	29	80	117
Shansi	1	5	8	54	68
Honan	1	6	15	96	118
Shensi	1	4	20	73	98
Kansu	1	6	30	41	78
Chinghai	1	..	7	1	9
Fukien	1	5	14	54	74
Taiwan	1	1	8	..	10
Kwangtung	1	9	95	..	105
Kwangsi	1	8	22	77	108
Yunnan	1	7	16	114	138
Kweichow	1	5	26	54	86
Jehol	1	..	10	10	21
Chahar	1	..	2	17	20
Suiyuan	1	1	4	16	22
Ningsia	1	..	4	3	8
Sinkiang	1	..	13	..	14
Liaoning	1	1	26	..	28
Antung	1	..	18	..	19
Liaopei	1	..	18	6	25
Kirin	1	1	18	1	21
Sungkiang	1	..	16	..	17
Heilungkiang	1	..	26	1	28
Nunkiang	1	..	18	2	21
Hokiang	1	..	18	..	19
Hingan	1	..	8	11	20
Grand Total	37	119	753	1,187	2,096

Remarks: As of June 30, 1948, Sinkiang remained the only province in China where, pending the establishment of courts or judicial sections, the magistrates of 66 *hsien* still administered judicial affairs including trying cases in a concurrent capacity.

Source: Ministry of Justice

Supreme Court* to appeal the death verdict. Only when the ministry is satisfied with the fairness of the sentences, will it order their execution, which should take place within three days after receipt of the order.

Cases involving foreign nationals also have to be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before the sentences are carried out. If the ministry, in reviewing such

* The Procuratorate of the Supreme Court is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice, although the Supreme Court itself comes under the Judicial Yuan.

cases, discovers evidence of failure to abide by a law or decree it may direct the Procuratorate of the Supreme Court to make extraordinary appeals.

Civil and Criminal Cases

During the 1937-1947 period, the various courts and *hsien* judicial sections of the country received altogether 6,033,816 cases for both first and second hearing, of which 4,760,795 were civil and 1,273,021 criminal. Decisions were reached on 5,354,261 of these cases, including 3,090,777 civil and 2,263,484 criminal cases. By far the largest number ever registered in a single year was in 1947 when the country's judicial organs listed 1,436,173 cases, 156,409 old and 1,279,764 new, and passed judgment on 1,269,451, leaving 166,722 cases pending. (see Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5.)

As seen in the following tables, during the initial stages of the war the yearly total of cases subjected to both first and second trials averaged between 200,000 and 300,000, and later increased to 500,000. It numbered more than 960,000 cases in 1946, the year following V-J Day, while 1947 registered a further jump of about 300,000 cases. This increase in litigation may be explained by (1) the establishment of new courts; (2) the transfer of special criminal cases to the courts for trial, and (3) social instability in the post-war era. The last-mentioned is believed to be the greatest contributing factor. A greater portion of the cases tried during 1947 were civil.

Present statistics on criminal cases include those of treason and corruption. (See the section on the trial of traitors or collaborationists in this Chapter).

During the years 1945-7, judicial authorities were particularly strict in dealing with cases of corruption. Altogether 22,109 such cases were tried, resulting in the conviction of 8,573 persons who were given varying sentences. The percentage of convictions in relation to the number of the accused was approximately 27 percent for 1945, 36 percent for 1946, and 42 percent for 1947.

The Supreme Court

The Supreme Court, being the highest tribunal of the land, handles third trials of all civil and criminal cases.

By the end of July, 1948, the Supreme Court had 10 civil courts and 14 criminal courts, all located in Nanking, as against a total of five civil courts and 11 criminal courts in July, 1937. It had an additional court in Peiping handling both civil and criminal cases. To expedite trial of large number of unsettled cases, six temporary courts had been added to the Supreme Court.

In each of these courts there are five judges, one of whom acts as the presiding judge.

The temporary Peiping branch of the Supreme Court was organized July 31, 1948. Preparations had also been made to open two more such branches, one in Chungking and the other in Canton, to meet the increasing load in west and south China.

The two wartime-created branches of the Supreme Court, the Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien branch and the Hunan-Kwangtung branch, closed down in 1946 following the return of the National Government to Nanking. The former had been reorganized from the Shanghai Special District Branch Court, which was forced to cease functioning when the Japanese occupied the International Settlement on December 8, 1941.

From 1945 until the end of June 1948, the Supreme Court ruled on 66,895 cases, 40,182 being civil and 26,713 criminal. In 1947 alone, 30,485 civil and criminal cases were decided.

The Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien and Hunan-Kwangtung branch courts of the Supreme Court rendered decisions on 7,562 cases, 4,441 civil and 3,121 criminal, from 1945 until their closure in 1946.

The Administrative Court

The Administrative Court, which is under the direct control of the Judicial Yuan, is composed of two courts, the first and second. Five judges, including the presiding judge, sit on each court.

The Administrative Court Procedural Law, promulgated by the National Government in 1937, stipulates that: Those who have suffered losses through breaches of law by either central or local government organs, may, in accordance with the Law of Appeals, repeat their appeals for redress, if they are not satisfied with the decisions thus handed down; or, if they receive no decisions two months after their second appeals, they may bring suits against the government organs in question in the Administrative Court, and accompany their suits with appeals for redress.

From 1945 to June, 1948, 291 cases were decided by the Administrative Court, which, like the other two judicial branches of the Judicial Yuan—the Supreme Court and the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries—is located in the national capital. (see Table 6.)

Table 2.—Civil and Criminal Cases (1938 to 1947)

Year	First Trial						Second Trial					
	No. of Cases Accepted			No. of Cases Decided			No. of Cases Accepted			No. of Cases Decided		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
1938......	74,992	45,296	120,288	64,534	42,414	106,948	22,339	17,483	39,822	18,787	14,631	33,418
1939......	145,574	96,558	242,132	133,601	92,204	225,805	44,595	33,714	78,309	40,570	30,366	70,936
1940......	177,765	141,521	319,286	153,877	135,814	289,691	60,744	46,356	107,100	51,632	41,031	92,663
1941......	216,232	151,633	367,865	196,863	143,182	340,045	80,087	47,849	127,936	68,666	42,751	111,417
1942......	228,539	133,748	362,287	210,998	124,453	335,451	92,348	48,432	140,780	79,034	43,059	122,093
1943......	186,096	120,757	306,853	167,593	110,676	278,269	86,323	40,504	126,827	72,919	36,492	109,411
1944......	247,097	156,744	403,841	222,050	141,568	363,618	69,795	35,965	105,760	59,352	30,474	89,826
1945......	308,642	218,673	527,315	267,046	189,551	456,597	69,501	44,436	113,937	57,666	36,654	94,320
1946......	508,091	414,019	922,110	446,625	362,979	809,604	107,428	77,768	185,196	86,983	67,725	154,708
1947......	649,547	539,272	1,188,819	569,937	486,442	1,056,379	146,690	100,664	247,354	122,054	91,018	213,072
Grand Total...	2,742,575	2,018,221	4,760,796	2,433,124	1,829,283	4,262,407	779,850	493,171	1,273,021	657,663	434,201	1,091,864

Remarks: The figures include both old and new cases accepted. The first-trial cases include those handled by the high courts, branch high courts, district courts and *Hsien* judicial sections.

Source: Ministry of Justice

Table 3—Civil and Criminal Cases—1947. First Trial

Province or Municipality	Number of Old Cases Accepted			Number of New Cases Accepted			Number of Cases Decided			Number of Cases Pending		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking....	306	541	847	3,932	6,102	10,034	3,741	6,397	10,138	479	264	743
Shanghai...	1,450	2,106	3,556	16,132	16,904	33,036	16,237	18,216	34,453	1,345	794	2,139
Kiangsu....	1,203	2,184	3,387	15,737	27,066	42,803	15,077	27,272	42,349	1,863	1,978	3,841
Chekiang...	5,282	3,099	8,381	57,019	36,369	93,388	56,355	37,028	93,383	5,946	2,440	8,386
Anhwei.....	1,745	2,634	4,379	10,120	12,177	22,297	10,328	12,869	23,197	1,537	1,942	3,479
Kiangsi....	1,177	1,326	2,503	13,596	19,470	33,066	13,331	18,765	32,096	1,442	2,031	3,473
Hupeh.....	1,390	2,084	3,474	25,598	26,658	52,256	25,058	26,617	51,675	1,930	2,125	4,055
Hunan.....	5,454	4,766	10,220	31,325	29,347	60,672	29,687	28,734	58,421	7,092	5,379	12,471
Szechwan...	18,229	11,560	29,789	140,249	89,152	229,401	138,967	86,927	225,894	19,511	13,785	33,296
Sikang.....	664	289	953	7,044	2,234	9,278	7,087	2,317	9,404	621	206	827
Hopei......	1,978	4,715	6,693	19,411	22,434	41,845	18,746	24,996	43,742	2,643	2,153	4,796
Shantung...	176	525	701	4,208	7,197	11,405	3,888	7,171	11,059	496	551	1,047
Shansi.....	175	188	363	1,242	2,237	3,479	1,175	2,174	3,349	242	251	493
Honan......	5,585	3,853	9,438	27,974	18,668	46,642	23,579	18,748	42,327	9,980	3,773	13,753
Shensi.....	1,212	1,198	2,410	24,688	19,067	43,755	24,711	18,829	43,540	1,189	1,436	2,625
Kansu......	909	312	1,221	27,026	15,470	42,496	27,077	15,530	42,607	858	252	1,110
Chinghai...	101	18	119	2,038	934	2,972	2,036	924	2,960	103	28	131
Fukien.....	2,139	2,611	4,750	14,240	16,300	30,540	14,144	16,249	30,393	2,235	2,662	4,897
Taiwan.....	1,376	1,176	2,552	8,237	10,412	18,649	7,259	10,555	17,814	2,354	1,033	3,387
Kwangtung.	2,111	1,936	4,047	32,734	32,063	64,797	33,076	32,608	65,684	1,769	1,391	3,160
Kwangsi....	3,282	3,512	6,794	23,961	24,846	48,807	23,728	25,372	49,100	3,515	2,986	6,501
Yunnan.....	2,457	1,418	3,875	12,541	4,657	17,198	11,921	5,094	17,015	3,077	981	4,058
Kweichow..	5,131	2,705	7,836	39,465	22,940	62,405	38,713	22,628	61,341	5,883	3,017	8,900
Liaoning...	609	797	1,406	8,772	11,746	20,518	8,316	11,988	20,304	1,065	555	1,620
Antung.....	6	9	15	403	209	612	240	165	405	169	53	222
Liaopei.....	120	98	218	994	754	1,748	860	733	1,593	254	119	373
Kirin.......	148	286	434	2,475	3,114	5,589	2,186	3,154	5,340	437	246	683
Jehol.......	87	41	128	509	293	802	441	292	733	155	42	197
Chahar.....	..	11	11	682	862	1,544	588	714	1,302	94	159	253
Suiyuan....	84	157	241	1,567	1,738	3,305	1,558	1,788	3,346	93	107	200
Ningsia....	39	12	51	945	386	1,331	941	389	1,330	43	9	52
Sinkiang....	1,282	170	1,452	8,776	1,129	9,905	8,886	1,199	10,085	1,172	100	1,272
GRAND TOTAL...	65,907	56,337	122,244	583,640	482,935	1,066,575	569,937	486,442	1,056,379	79,592	52,848	132,440

REMARKS: The figures include first-trial cases handled by the high courts, branch high courts, district courts and Hsien judicial sections. Source: Ministry of Justice

Table 4—Civil and Criminal Cases—1947 Second Trial

Province or Municipality	Number of Old Cases Accepted			Number of New Cases Accepted			Number of Cases Decided			Number of Cases Pending		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking....	113	108	221	883	1,213	2,096	916	1,233	2,149	80	88	168
Shanghai...	678	263	941	3,074	2,592	5,666	2,606	2,610	5,216	1,146	245	1,391
Kiangsu....	274	483	757	3,125	5,023	8,148	2,840	4,925	7,765	559	581	1,140
Chekiang...	1,467	996	2,463	10,142	6,352	16,494	9,278	6,361	15,639	2,331	987	3,318
Anhwei.....	418	515	933	1,850	2,287	4,137	1,785	2,540	4,325	483	262	745
Kiangsi....	317	432	749	3,264	4,801	8,065	3,283	4,961	8,244	298	272	570
Hupeh.....	670	409	1,079	4,253	4,277	8,530	4,499	4,385	8,884	424	301	725
Hunan.....	913	520	1,433	6,812	5,585	12,397	6,498	5,617	12,115	1,227	488	1,715
Szechwan...	5,024	3,237	8,261	28,777	13,054	41,831	28,123	14,363	42,486	5,678	1,928	7,606
Sikang.....	75	11	86	1,311	368	1,679	1,208	349	1,557	178	30	208
Hopei......	1,484	791	2,275	5,350	4,725	10,075	4,715	4,245	8,960	2,119	1,271	3,390
Shantung...	94	168	262	868	2,202	3,070	897	2,290	3,187	65	80	145
Shansi.....	56	87	143	286	750	1,036	290	794	1,084	52	43	95
Honan......	1,734	607	2,341	9,676	2,932	12,608	9,376	3,055	12,431	2,034	484	2,518
Shensi.....	525	266	791	6,449	3,920	10,369	6,395	4,003	10,398	579	183	762
Kansu......	181	48	229	4,040	2,041	6,081	4,003	2,024	6,027	218	65	283
Chinghai...	9	4	13	118	94	212	118	91	209	9	7	16
Fukien.....	690	440	1,130	4,163	4,707	8,870	4,162	4,891	9,053	691	256	947
Taiwan.....	243	87	330	425	910	1,335	321	823	1,144	347	174	521
Kwangtung.	1,452	607	2,059	8,525	6,180	14,705	9,089	6,468	15,557	888	319	1,207
Kwangsi....	2,108	1,940	4,048	6,240	7,074	13,314	6,718	7,956	14,674	1,630	1,058	2,688
Yunnan.....	984	110	1,094	5,090	803	5,893	4,778	754	5,532	1,296	159	1,455
Kweichow..	1,370	733	2,103	8,671	4,044	12,715	8,432	4,693	13,125	1,609	84	1,693
Liaoning...	92	125	217	1,310	698	2,008	974	685	1,659	428	138	566
Antung.....	7	..	7	15	6	21	..	..	..	22	6	28
Liaopei....	7	3	10	95	103	198	48	102	150	54	4	58
Kirin.......	5	7	12	139	159	298	99	130	229	45	36	81
Jehol.......	16	..	16	97	63	160	58	42	100	55	21	76
Chahar.....	..	..	..	85	179	264	68	163	231	17	16	33
Suiyuan....	48	33	81	201	196	397	221	206	427	28	23	51
Ningsia....	13	8	21	124	84	208	130	87	217	7	5	12
Sinkiang....	43	17	60	122	187	309	126	172	298	39	32	71
GRAND TOTAL...	21,110	13,055	34,165	125,580	87,609	213,189	122,054	91,018	213,072	24,636	9,646	34,282

Source: Ministry of Justice

TABLE 5—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES DECIDED BY THE SUPREME COURT 1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)

Month	1945			1946			1947			1948 (Jan.-June)		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
January	658	155	813	432	244	676	388	422	810	996	1,004	2,000
February	570	158	728	462	231	693	554	1,302	1,856	905	812	1,717
March	808	267	1,075	500	359	859	866	1,745	2,611	1,432	1,090	2,522
April	826	224	1,050	689	383	1,072	913	1,144	2,057	1,374	1,028	2,402
May	870	211	1,081	858	347	1,205	1,139	1,292	2,431	1,375	1,024	2,399
June	898	294	1,192	504	300	804	957	1,227	2,184	1,232	972	2,204
July	753	239	992	253	151	404	817	1,231	2,048	...	...	...
August	748	202	950	294	133	427	5,926	885	6,811	...	...	...
September	622	207	829	541	210	751	1,136	1,094	2,230	...	...	...
October	762	250	1,012	932	338	1,270	1,276	1,186	2,462	...	...	...
November	727	303	1,030	894	636	1,530	1,108	1,200	2,308	...	...	...
December	754	411	1,165	967	591	1,558	1,466	1,211	2,677	...	...	...
GRAND TOTAL	8,896	2,921	11,917	7,326	3,923	11,249	16,546	13,939	30,485	7,314	5,930	13,244

REMARKS: The figures do not include cases handled by the two branch courts of the Supreme Court.

Source: Judicial Yuan

TABLE 6—CASES DECIDED BY THE ADMINISTRATIVE COURT 1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)

Category of Case	1945	1946	1947	1948
Repetition	13	33	70	42
Not under court's jurisdiction or contrary to legal procedure	11	14	20	8
Petition	15	11	22	22
Re-trial	2	2	4	2
TOTAL	41	60	116	74

Source: Judicial Yuan

PUNISHMENT OF PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES

The Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries has been set up to guard against corruption among government servants. It has jurisdiction over all cases of embezzlement, default, dereliction of duty, breach of law and other legal offenses involving members of any of the four main ranks within the Chinese civil service set-up.

The power to discipline top-ranking government officials — those having the special appointment rank—was invested in the Commission as of July 1, 1948, following its re-organization under the new Constitutional Government. Formerly it belonged to a special committee under the National Government.

The commission, which comes under the Judicial Yuan, consists of two divisions, one central and the other local. The central commission is empowered to discipline local administrative officials throughout the country of the second (or selected appointment), and third (or recommended appointment) ranks, and all Central Government functionaries of all the four ranks —special, selected, recommended and designated appointments. The local commissions have jurisdiction over local government officials of and below the designated appointment rank.

From 1945 to June, 1948, the central commission decided 750 cases involving functionaries under the Central Government. The following table shows the cases decided by the commission (central division) from 1945 to June, 1948.

TABLE 7—CASES DECIDED BY THE COMMISSION FOR THE DISCIPLINARY PUNISHMENT OF PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES (central division) 1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)

Month	1945	1946	1947	1948
January	2	4	3	20
February	3	6	9	25
March	5	7	11	32
April	6	8	12	35
May	6	2	15	25
June	20	4	22	61
July	9	15	32	..
August	17	11	11	..
September	8	11	28	..
October	11	19	23	..
November	10	24	12	..
December	21	56	89	..
TOTAL	118	167	267	198

Source: Judicial Yuan

Special Criminal Cases

Regulations Governing the Trial of Special Criminal Cases were promulgated by the National Government on January 13, 1944, and went into effect on November 12 of the same year. Because of the existing national emergency, cases of treason, robbery, corruption and opium and drug offenses constituted special criminal cases, and the offenders were tried by military tribunals or similar organs. Later, these cases were transferred to judicial agencies with the exception of those involving military personnel and opium and drug offenders.

By a mandate of the National Government in March, 1946, the trial of cases involving anti-opium and anti-drug laws was placed in the hands of judicial agencies. Because of the peculiar conditions caused by communist disturbances in Shensi, Kansu and Honan, the new ruling did not go into effect in these provinces until October, 1947.

The National Government in December, 1946, adopted a set of emergency measures dealing with cases of robbery and banditry, committed in pacification areas and in the nine Northeastern Provinces. These cases were to be tried by military tribunals. This was revoked in December, 1947, and in its place were promulgated the Emergency Penal Measures to Cope with Acts of Sedition during the rebellion-suppression period. The new measures provide for the establishment of special criminal courts to handle cases of sedition and serious cases of robbery and banditry. These special criminal courts, which deal primarily with communist rebels and violators of public security, have two divisions: Special High Criminal Courts (under the Ministry of Justice) and Special Central Criminal Courts (under the Judicial Yuan). Retrials are handled by the Special Central Criminal Court in Nanking. Regulations governing the organization of these tribunals were adopted by the Legislative Yuan on March 25, 1948, and by July 5 of the same year 13 cities—Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Hankow, Hsuchow, Chinkiang, Hofei, Tsingtao, Hangchow, Foochow, Hainan island, Tihwa and Sian—had reported the establishment of Special High Criminal Courts. More were scheduled to be organized at Canton, Chungking, Chengtu, Wuhu, Tsinan, Siangyang, Kiukiang, Lanchow, Tientsin, Shufu (Kashgar) and Kunming. The Special Central Criminal Court began functioning September 15, 1948.

Punishment of Traitors

All cases of high treason were handled by judicial agencies with the exception of those wherein the accused belonged originally to military personnel and had held military posts under the puppet regime. The latter were subject to trial under military law.

In the disposal of high treason cases, the Ministry of Justice instructed the courts concerned that:

(1) Those guilty of false accusations be severely punished;

(2) Accusations made by anonymous persons be ignored;

(3) The confiscation of a traitor's property be carried out jointly by the prosecutor and a representative of the Alien Property Administration, or of the local government if there is no representative of the administration;

(4) Property, necessary for the subsistence of the dependents of a traitor, be exempted from confiscation;

(5) The above-mentioned dependents include those who are unable to support themselves. Subsistence means outlays for clothing, food and housing, and medical and educational expenses.

The National Government named December 31, 1946 as the last day for bringing charges against traitors. The new ruling, however, in no way restricted or altered the State's right of prosecution or the victims' right of complaint.

Up to the end of June, 1948, charges of treason had been brought against 31,895 persons. Of these, 6,771 were acquitted, while 16,385 were convicted.

Practically all important cases of treason had been disposed of by the end of 1947. Altogether 25 persons were given death sentences which were duly carried out after they had been upheld by the Ministry of Justice. The 25 included these notorious leaders in the Japanese-sponsored puppet regime: Chen Kung-po, Chu Min-yi, Miao Pin and Liang Hung-chih. Chen Pi-chun, wife of Wang Ching-wei, president of the puppet regime, was among the 58 traitors sentenced to life imprisonment. The National Government commuted the death sentence of Chou Fu-hai, another puppet leader, to life imprisonment. Chou, however, died in prison in Nanking on February 28, 1948, following a protracted illness.

II. COURT JURISDICTION OVER FOREIGNERS

With the abrogation of the extraterritoriality treaties, law suits involving foreign nationals have, since January, 1942, been tried by Chinese courts in accordance with Chinese laws and regulations. Specific instructions regarding court jurisdiction over foreign nationals were given to the judicial organs of the country by the Ministry of Justice in February, 1943. These provided that if a foreigner is involved in a civil or criminal case as a defendant and if the judicial authority handling the case is lower than a district court, either the defendant or the judicial authority concerned may, prior to the commencement of trial, send a written request to the high court to have the case transferred to a district court.

(1) Cases Involving Foreigners

In 1946 and also in 1947, law suits involving foreign nationals registered a marked increase over those in any one of the eight war years, 1937-45. Where in 1942, for example, only 17 such cases were tried in Chinese courts, the annual total jumped to 126 in 1945, to 959 in 1946, and 962 in 1947.

From 1937 to 1945 inclusive, various district courts tried a total of 4,072 cases, of which 2,461 were civil and 1,611 criminal, averaging about 450 cases a year. Most of these were tried in Shanghai.

(2) Advocateship of Foreigners

On April 5, 1945, the National Government passed its revised Advocates Act permitting the practice of law in China by foreign nationals. Under the revised act, nationals of any foreign country under whose law Chinese citizens may be admissible to the bar may apply to take the examination for advocates in accordance with Chinese law. Those who have passed the examination and have obtained permission to serve as advocates in China are required to abide by all Chinese laws and the regulations of the Bar Association. They are further required to conduct their proceedings and submit their documents in the Chinese language. (Articles 47, 48 and 49 of the revised Advocates Act deal with the practice of law in China by foreign nationals. A complete translation of the Act is to be found in this Chapter on page 219).

(3) Jurisdiction over Allied Forces

Up to August, 1948, United States military personnel in China—members of the Army Advisory Group—continued to enjoy immunity from the Chinese law under a wartime arrangement between China and the United States. The pertinent regulations governing criminal jurisdiction over members of the American armed forces temporarily stationed in China, born of this arrangement, were promulgated by the National Government on October 1, 1943. They were to remain in force until six months after the conclusion of the war.

A government decree issued on May 3, 1946, extended them for another year. On July 16, 1947, Article VII was revised to allow the regulations to remain effective until the complete withdrawal of American military personnel from China.

A similar wartime agreement between China and Great Britain was terminated following V-J Day, after all British military personnel had withdrawn from the China theater.

Regulations Governing Criminal Jurisdiction over Members of the American Armed Forces in China

(Promulgated by the National Government on October 1, 1943, and revised on July 16, 1947)

Article I. The National Government of the Republic of China, in the interest of conduct of war against the common enemies and acting from a spirit of reciprocity, shall surrender to the American service courts and military authorities exclusive jurisdiction over any criminal offenses that may be committed by members of the armed forces of the United States stationed temporarily in China. The cases shall be handled according to these regulations.

Article II. The Chinese courts shall handle criminal offenses committed by members of the American armed forces in China if and when the military authorities of the American Government prefer that jurisdiction be exercised by the Chinese Government.

Article III. Members of the American armed forces as mentioned in these regulations refer only to those who are, according to the American laws, subject to the jurisdiction of the American military and naval laws. This does not include Chinese nationals serving in the American armed forces and nationals of a third or undetermined nationality employed in China by the American armed forces.

Members of the American armed forces shall produce their credentials to identify themselves as being subject to the jurisdiction of the American military and naval laws.

TABLE 8—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES INVOLVING FOREIGNERS
1945 TO 1947
FIRST TRIAL
(By Locality)

Province or Municipality	1945			1946			1947		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking	..	..	..	..	5	5	..	7	7
Shanghai	45	46	91	316	385	701	587	235	822
Kiangsu	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..
Chekiang	1	5	6	..	8	8	1	1	2
Kiangsi	..	..	..	..	2	2	..	..	..
Hupeh	..	..	..	2	46	48	2	..	2
Hunan	..	..	..	1	1	2	..	1	1
Szechwan	4	17	21	3	3	6	5	..	5
Sikang	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..
Hopei	..	..	..	..	12	12	3	15	18
Shantung	..	..	..	41	23	64	19	15	34
Shansi	..	..	..	..	15	15	..	..	..
Honan	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	1
Kwangtung	..	..	..	..	21	21	..	4	4
Kwangsi	..	8	8	..	9	9	1	4	5
Yunnan	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2
Liaoning	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	30
Kirin	..	..	..	..	62	62	..	29	29
Sinkiang	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..
GRAND TOTAL	50	76	126	365	594	959	621	341	962

Source: Ministry of Justice

TABLE 9—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES INVOLVING FOREIGNERS
1945 TO 1947
FIRST TRIAL
(By Nationality)

Nationality of Accused	1945			1946			1947		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Chinese	8	4	12	39	15	54	192	5	197
British	12	1	13	70	27	97	80	4	84
American	3	10	13	23	34	57	41	16	57
Soviet	2	2	4	21	180	201	137	81	218
Dutch	1	..	1	3	1	4	2	..	2
Belgian	..	..	..	1	2	3	..	..	..
Portuguese	..	..	..	3	11	14	13	3	16
Spanish	..	1	1	1	6	7	5	..	5
Indian	..	1	1	2	14	16	7	3	10
German	4	..	4	30	22	52	20	6	26
Italian	..	..	..	4	9	13	2	1	3
Japanese	..	19	19	7	146	153	8	14	22
French	..	2	2	17	22	39	21	26	47
Stateless	..	..	..	1	..	1	55	..	55
Others	20	36	56	143	105	248	38	182	220
GRAND TOTAL	50	76	126	365	594	959	621	341	962

Source: Ministry of Justice

Article IV. The regulation concerning jurisdiction as described in Article I shall not restrain the Chinese courts in the exercise, according to the Chinese laws, of such authority as questioning, arrest, detention, search and investigation over any member of the American armed forces who has committed or is alleged to have committed an offense.

As soon as sufficient evidence has been made available to prove the member of the American armed forces concerned to be guilty or culpable, findings to that effect shall be reported immediately to the American military authority concerned, and the case shall be transferred thereto.

Article V. Transcript copies of verdicts rendered by the American service courts and military authorities on cases involving members of the American armed forces in China shall be made available to the Chinese courts or other agencies concerned upon request. The latter may also, prior to the rendering of the verdicts, request to be kept informed about the progress of the cases.

Article VI. No person acting with good intention toward a member of the American armed forces shall be held legally responsible, either in a civil or a criminal sense, if, due to the fact that he is unaware of the identity of the American, his act is not in accordance with these regulations.

Article VII. These regulations shall come into force from the date of promulgation and shall remain effective until all American military personnel have withdrawn from China.

III. JUDICIAL SURVEY

Dr. Roscoe Pound, dean emeritus of the Harvard Law School, was appointed advisor to the Chinese Ministry of Justice in February, 1946. He came to China in the summer of the same year to study postwar conditions in this country in preparation for the work he was going to undertake.

His preliminary study led him to think that the Chinese legal system as it then stood was comparable, if not superior, to that of any of the advanced countries in the West and that no fundamental change was needed. He proposed, among other things, that a survey be made of the administration of justice to ascertain actual conditions and problems and to collect data and gather opinions as a basis for future improvement of Chinese legal institutions.

Steps to implement Dr. Pound's proposal were taken upon his return to China in September, 1947, following a home visit. An official body known as the Judicial Survey was organized in the spring of 1948 under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice.

The survey has five sections, composed of a chief and two assistants each. The section chiefs were chosen from among university professors and experienced judges and procurators of high rank, while the assistants are either judges or procurators chosen for their special ability and interest in such an undertaking. The duties of the five sections are as follows:

Section 1.—Study of agencies of public order and of investigation and detention;

Section 2.—Study of agencies and methods of prosecution;

Section 3.—Study of agencies of penal and correctional treatment;

Section 4.—Study of the application of the civil codes and supplementary legislation;

Section 5.—Study of civil procedure and the enforcement of judgements and orders.

The early part of 1948 was spent in making preparations for the survey, including the preparation of questionnaires and forms. The group began its work in June, starting with Nanking and Shanghai and then proceeding to 40 cities in Kiangsu and Chekiang. Special attention was paid to the extent of cooperation and coordination between the different agencies concerned and the question of juvenile delinquency.

The questionnaires and forms were so prepared as to obtain data concerning points which have given rise to problems and discussions in other countries. It is believed, therefore, that the results of the survey would contribute much to the comparative study of legal systems and institutions related thereto.

In view of the importance of juvenile legislation, the Ministry of Justice, with Dr. Pound's assistance, took steps to prepare a comprehensive draft of a law governing juvenile delinquency, based partly on the data obtained from the survey and partly on modern legislation in other countries. The work was expected to be finished before the end of 1948.

Dr. Pound, who is the leader of the well-known School of Sociological Jurisprudence, also took a special interest in Chinese legal education. At the request of the Ministry of Education he presented memoranda and opinions on legal education and lectured at various universities. He served concurrently on the Ministry's Council of Legal Education as advisor.

IV. PRISONS

(1) Prison Reform

The Ministry of Justice, in 1941, blueprinted the postwar construction of new prison-houses over a period of 10 years and, two years later, mapped out a program of prison reform. In January, 1946, the National Government enacted such laws as the *Regulations Governing Prisons, Regulations Governing Detention Houses, Prison Execution Law and Detention Law*, which all became effective in June, 1947.

Due to lack of funds, however, improvements to the existing prisons were limited. Such improvements were effected first to the prisons in Shanghai in 1947 and were to be extended to all new prisons in the various provinces in 1948 and to all the old ones in 1949. The plan was to bring all the Chinese prisons up to the Ministry of Justice requirements in three years' time.

Highlights of the prison reform program are (1) stricter discipline among prison personnel; (2) general improvement; (3) stricter guard service; re-

Table 10—Prisons and Detention Houses in Various Provinces and Municipalities June, 1948

Province or Municipality	Prison	Branch Prison	Juvenile Prison	Convicts' Colony	Detention House	Total
Nanking	1	..	..	..	2	3
Shanghai	1	1	..	..	2	4
Kiangsu	5	1	..	..	60	66
Chekiang	5	..	..	..	76	81
Anhwei	5	..	..	1	62	68
Kiangsi	4	..	..	..	78	82
Hupeh	3	..	1	..	71	75
Hunan	4	..	..	..	77	81
Szechwan	3	..	..	1	145	149
Sikang	..	..	..	..	37	37
Hopei	6	5	..	..	137	148
Shantung	11	4	1	..	109	125
Shansi	6	..	..	..	62	68
Honan	3	..	..	..	111	114
Shensi	6	..	..	..	93	99
Kansu	4	..	..	..	71	75
Chinghai	1	..	..	..	7	8
Fukien	5	..	..	..	68	73
Taiwan	8	..	1	..	8	17
Kwangtung	6	..	..	..	95	101
Kwangsi	3	..	..	..	99	102
Yunnan	1	..	..	..	130	131
Kweichow	1	1	..	..	80	82
Jehol	1	..	..	..	15	16
Chahar	1	..	1	..	19	21
Suiyuan	1	..	..	..	20	21
Ningsia	1	..	..	..	7	8
Sinkiang	8	..	..	..	79	87
Liaoning	8	..	..	..	26	34
Antung	2	..	..	..	12	14
Liaopei	4	..	..	..	11	15
Kirin	3	..	..	..	9	12
Sungkiang	..	..	..	..	..	..
Heilungkiang	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nunkiang	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hokiang	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hsingan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Grand Ttoal	121	12	4	2	1,878	2,017

Source: Ministry of Justice

orientation of prisoners; (5) better prison diets; (6) improved health and medical services for prisoners; (7) better buildings; (8) protection of released convicts.

As of June, 1948, there were in all China 121 prisons, 12 branch prisons, four juvenile prisons and two labor prisons or convicts' colonies. In addition, there were 1,878 detention houses attached to district and high courts and *hsien* judicial sections. (see Table 10.)

Generally, convicts serve their terms in detention houses in those *hsien* which have no new prisons. Separate quarters are provided in some cases for military convicts to relieve the congestion in the *hsien* jails.

(2) Convicts

Convicts are provided vocational training while serving their prison terms. In many cases the training program means a continuation of their occupational pursuits.

As of December, 1947, there were 2,237 working units in China's prisons and detention houses, with convicts engaged in 64 different types of productive labor including: printing, spinning, gardening and horticulture, and the making of sandals, socks, matches, letter envelopes and joss sticks. During 1947 alone these working units earned CNC$1,638,273,826 from the sales of their products.

To relieve prison congestion, the Ministry of Justice has since 1941 been carrying out a re-settlement program among the convicts through the establishment of labor prisons or, more correctly, convicts' colonies. The first such colony was set up at Pingwu in northern Szechwan, on October 1, 1941. By the end of 1947, more than 1,400 mow of wasteland had been reclaimed. The number of convict-workers averaged 150 daily, of whom 100 were engaged in farming. The crops grown included corn, rice, potatoes and vegetables. Some raised cattle. Not a few of the workers had their families living with them in the colony. In 1947 preparations on two more convicts' colonies were begun, one at Suancheng in Anhwei, and the other at Pingpa in Kweichow.

At the end of 1947, there were about 130,680 convicts in the various prisons and detention houses throughout China. This total was taken as a daily average of convicts serving their terms between January and December of that year.

A total of 72,196 convicts was released under a general amnesty proclaimed by the National Government on New Year's Day, 1947, on the promulgation of the new constitution. The amnesty was applicable to all cases except those relating to treason, corruption, homicide against lineal relatives by blood, and ascendancy and drug offenses.

Measures governing the commutation of sentences were passed by the National Government in June, 1944. By the end of 1945, 4,084 convicts had received varying commutations of their sentences. More convicts had their sentences commuted since the government's proclamation of amnesty on the New Year's Day of 1947; however, no complete statistics were available as of July, 1948.

The wartime regulations governing the transfer of convicts for military service and the temporary release of prison-term convicts during the emergency period were abrogated in January, 1946. By then, 38,175 convicts had been released for army service, and 47,089 convicts paroled, bailed out or temporarily released. In October, 1947, similar measures were enacted by the Executive Yuan for prison-term convicts in pacification areas.

V. JUDICIAL REFORMS

(1) Simplification of Trial Procedure

Further simplification of the trial procedure of civil and criminal cases was one of the major resolutions of the National Judicial Conference held in Nanking November 5-12, 1947.

Even during the war, the district courts in Chungking and Pishan attempted with satisfactory results a new simplified procedure for the trial of civil and criminal cases.

Of the cases tried by the Pishan district court from May, 1942, to June, 1944, 70 percent took less than 15 days to reach a settlement; 13 percent less than five days; 9 percent less than a month; 5 percent less than a day, and 3 percent more than a month.

In March, 1945, pursuant to a directive from the Executive Yuan, the Ministry of Justice formulated a simplified procedure program on the basis of the results of these experiments and submitted it for legislation along with suggestions for changes in the civil and criminal procedural laws. The proposed program was shelved. Only the proposed revisions in these laws were passed by the Legislative Yuan. Following their promulgation in December of the same year, the experimental district courts at Chungking and Pishan ceased functioning.

(2) Court Mediation

As a means to reduce civil litigations, the courts undertake mediation in civil disputes. From V-J Day till the end of 1947, 106,387 such cases were handled by the various courts. Mediatory efforts proved successful in 26,521 cases or about 25 percent of the total. The prewar average was less than five percent.

(3) Enforcement of Habeas Corpus Act

China's Habeas Corpus Act, superseding the regulations for safeguarding the freedom of the human person, was put in force on March 15, 1946. The regulations, which were adopted during the war as a preparatory step toward constitutional rule, were adopted on July 15, 1944 by the National Government to become effective on August 1, the same year.

Specified guarantee of the people's freedom of person is contained in Article 8 of the new constitution, which reads:

Article 8—Freedom of person shall be guaranteed to the people. Except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto* as otherwise provided for by law, no person shall be arrested or detained unless the arrest or detention is made by a judicial or a police organ in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. No person shall be tried or punished except by a judicial authority in accordance with procedure prescribed by law.

Any arrest, detention, trial or punishment not in accordance with procedure prescribed by law may be contested.

When a person is arrested or detained on suspicion of having committed a crime, the organ making the arrest or detention shall in writing inform the said person and his designated relative or friend of the reason for his arrest or detention, and shall, within twenty-four hours, turn him over to a competent judicial authority for hearing. The said person, or any other individual, may petition the competent court that a writ be served within twenty-four hours on the organ making the arrest for the surrender of the said person for hearing.

The court may not reject the petition mentioned in the preceding paragraph, nor may it order the organ concerned to make an investigation and report first. The organ concerned may not refuse to execute or delay in executing the writ of the court for surrender of the said person for hearing.

When a person is arrested or detained illegally, he, or any other person, may petition the court for an investigation. The court may not reject such a petition, and shall, within twenty-four hours, make the investigation with the organ concerned, and proceed with the matter in accordance with law.

To bring the Habeas Corpus Act into full consonancy with these constitutional provisions, the Legislative Yuan, on April 15, 1948, deleted Article 4 and revised Articles 5 and 6 of the Act. The deleted article was found in conflict with paragraph three of the above-quoted article from the Constitution, as it provided that ". . . the court may order the concerned . . . to report within a specified period of time."

(4) Court-Assigned Attorney System

In July, 1940, the Chungking District Court started the system of court-assigned attorneys to represent those defendants who are unable to pay legal fees and who face criminal charges involving more than five years of imprisonment, or who face first trials without advocates under the jurisdiction of a high court. In 1941, the system was extended to the district courts at Chengtu and Kweilin. By the end of 1947, it had been put into effect in some 50 cities including Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Hankow and Canton. In April, 1948, 10 more cities in the northwestern frontier province of Sinkiang had adopted the system, followed by Hangchow and 10 other cities in Chekiang in May of the same year. One or two attorneys may thus be assigned to a case and they receive their fees from the government.

The Ministry of Justice has, meanwhile, instituted a set of measures requiring members of the bar association to provide free legal advice to complainants too poor to pay. By the end of 1947, 86 cities in 16 provinces had reported the enforcement of these measures. Early in 1948, the Ministry of Justice approved for immediate enforcement details of implementing the "free legal aid to the poor" system, which was submitted by the Nanchang Bar Association in Kiangsi.

For the convenience of litigants or prospective litigants unacquainted with legal procedure, the Ministry of Justice in 1942 ordered the establishment of civil and criminal procedure inquiry offices in district courts and their equivalents. By the end of 1947, 380 such offices had been set up in 18 provinces.

(5) Notary Public System

The Notary Public System was instituted in China first in the Nanking district court in April, 1935. Before July,

1937, it was extended to 27 other courts.

The system was promoted with greater vigor after the beginning of the war with Japan, which caused upheavals in the social and economic life of the people. By the end of 1947, there were notary public offices in 557 out of the country's 748 district courts. They were to be set up in 29 more district courts during 1948.

Statistics show annual increases in the number of cases handled by the notary public offices since 1945: 22,312 in 1945; 65,017 in 1946; and 11,686 in 1947, in areas not overrun by communists.

Details for the enforcement of the Notary Public Law and regulations governing notary public service fees were announced on January 1, 1944.

(6) Circuit Courts

The circuit court system, a wartime expedient in China, was abolished in December, 1945. Gratifying results had been reported from the nine war-stricken provinces of Hupeh, Kwangtung, Honan, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Shantung and Shansi where circuit courts to hold second trials had been sitting since 1939. The first trials were left to the district courts. In regard to cases in the *hsien* under enemy occupation, first trials were held by courts in the neighboring *hsien* under Chinese control.

(7) Training of Judicial Personnel

The Ministry of Justice has been aiding the nation's universities and colleges since 1942 in enlarging their legal training programs. Special training classes were conducted for judicial officials under the joint sponsorship of the Judicial Yuan and the Ministry of Justice.

At the end of 1947, China had altogether 8,130 key judicial personnel, of whom 2,389 were judges, 1,774 procurators, 2,074 trial officers, and 1,893 jail superintendents. In addition, there were more than 90,000 court clerks and jail officers. Seven-tenths of the judges and procurators had been selected by examination, and 2,121 of them had passed competitive examinations held since the establishment of the National Government in 1927.

Chinese judges generally are appointed from among successful candidates of competitive government examinations given for judicial officials. Some are selected on the basis of their credentials and experience.

(8) Law Courses in Colleges

In 1948, law courses were offered in the following 32 universities and colleges; those marked with asterisks were privately operated.

National Central University
National Political University
National Futan University
*Great China University
*Aurora University
*Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence
*Shanghai College of Law
National China University
*Soochow University
National Peking University
*Chaoyang College
*Chungkuo College
*Huapei College of Arts and Law
National Wuhan University
National Northwest University
National Kwangsi University
National Anhwei University
National Shansi University
National Kweichow University
National Hunan University
National Lanchow University
National Amoy University
*Minkuo College of Peiping
National Szechwan University
*Fukien College
National Sun Yat-sen University
*Kuoming University of Kwangtung
*University of Canton
National Yunnan University
National Northeast University
National Changchun University
National Yingshih University

In the middle of July, 1948, 1,560 law school graduates from these institutions participated in a three-day competitive preliminary examination for judicial officials, held simultaneously in 32 Chinese cities under the joint sponsorship of the Ministry of Examination and the Ministry of Justice. Subjects reviewed included the constitution, civil and criminal codes, civil and criminal procedural laws, commercial laws and regulations, and international private law.

(9) Unification of Judicial Expenditures

At the beginning of the Republic, judicial expenditures formed part of the national budget. But during the subsequent years of internal strife, the funds became irregular due to the interference of the warlords. In 1928, the National Government decided that these expenditures should come from local revenues. This arrangement, however, did not work

out satisfactorily. The National Judicial Conference held in 1935 adopted two transitional measures. First, before such expenses were assumed by the National Treasury, the various provinces should be responsible for meeting the court costs in their jurisdiction; second, the National Treasury should designate portions of the income tax, inheritance tax and other definite sources of revenue to meet judicial expenditures throughout the country.

Beginning in 1940, in an agreement worked out between the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Finance, the expenditures for courts and modern prisons in nine provinces—Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang, Ningsia and Chinghai—were to become part of the national budget and to be met by the Central Government. The following year, judicial expenditures in all other provinces were similarly incorporated in the national budget, thus marking the unification of the country's legal finances. Since then the judicial budget has increased annually both in income and in expenditure as shown in the following tables.

VI. ADVOCATES AND ADVOCATES ACT

The existing Advocates Act was promulgated by the National Government in January, 1941. It was revised in April, 1945 to apply also to foreign nationals desiring to practise law in China—a development arising out of the termination of consular jurisdiction by the major foreign powers on New Year's Day, 1942.

On March 23, 1948, Article XXX of the Advocates Act was modified in keeping with the constitutional development of the country. The amendment further restricts the holding of certain concurrent public offices by practising advocates. (see text of the Advocates Act below).

The Ministry of Justice, on January 31, 1947, ruled that any advocate who had executed his duty in a puppet court or who had served as a puppet public functionary but had not been convicted shall have his license suspended for a specified length of time.

No person may practise law in China without an advocate's license issued by the Ministry of Justice. Altogether 11,342 such licenses had been granted from 1927 up to the end of 1947. Of this number, 1,521 were given out during 1945, 1946 and 1947.

Revised Advocates Act

(Promulgated by the National Government on April 5, 1945, and enforced the same day.)

Article I. Any citizen of the Republic of China who has successfully passed the examination for advocates is eligible to practise law.

Whoever possesses one of the following qualifications is required only to have his or her record examined and verified in lieu of taking the examination mentioned in the preceding paragraph:

(1) Erstwhile judge or procurator;
(2) Erstwhile professor, assistant professor or lecturer who has taught principal law courses for more

Table 11—Judicial Income Versus National Revenue 1941 to 1947
In Chinese National Currency Dollars (CNC $)

Year	National Revenue	Judicial Income (Under Ministry of Justice)	Percentage
1941..........	17,533,877,542	6,518,608	.086
1942..........	17,310,618,341	9,911,484	.573
1943..........	18,886,010,918	32,405,000	.172
1944..........	79,501,431,808	75,200,000	.095
1945..........	263,844,138,900	287,390,000	.109
1946..........	2,524,934,725,000	2,230,044,000	.088
1947..........	9,370,406,740,000	55,100,000,000	.588

Remarks: 1. The figures do not include subsequent budgetary additions or deductions.
2. The figures include extraordinary and special receipts.
3. The figures listed under 1947 represent merely those for the first half of that year.

Source: Ministry of Justice

TABLE 12—JUDICIAL EXPENDITURE VERSUS NATIONAL EXPENDITURE 1941 TO 1947

In Chinese National Currency Dollars (CNC $)

Year	National Expenditure			Judicial Expenditure			Percentage
	General	Extraordinary	Total	General	Extraordinary	Total	
1941 . . .	4,289,047,080	320,554,661	4,609,601,741	32,760,825	2,899,796	35,660,621	.773
1942 . . .	10,873,485,584	6,437,132,759	17,310,618,343	44,834,111	5,942,096	50,776,207	.293
1943 . . .	20,368,539,783	15,867,874,078	36,236,413,861	93,610,611	15,868,478	109,479,089	.302
1944 . . .	42,175,525,272	37,325,906,536	79,501,431,808	182,856,027	659,527,896	842,383,923	1.059
1945 . . .	176,745,823,518	87,098,315,182	263,844,138,700	267,808,500	3,396,755,700	3,664,564,200	1.398
1946 . . .	1,379,716,459,000	1,145,218,266	1,380,861,677,266	1,408,256,000	36,012,805,000	37,421,061,000	1.609
1947 . . .	4,883,894,020,000	4,486,512,720,000	9,370,406,740,000	6,244,320,000	168,195,020,000	174,439,340,000	1.862

REMARK: 1. The figures do not include subsequent budgetary additions and deductions.
2. The figures listed under extraordinary expenditure include special expenditure.
3. The figures listed under 1947 represent only those for the first half of that year.

Source: Ministry of Justice

than two years in a governmental or accredited university, college or academy;

(3) One who possesses the qualifications of Article 33 (d) or Article 37 (e) of the Organic Law of Courts.

Method for review and verification of records mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be prescribed by the Examination Yuan in conjunction with the Executive Yuan and the Judicial Yuan.

Article II. Under any of the following circumstances, one shall not be eligible to become an advocate, and, likewise, an advocate shall have his license as such revoked:

(1) Betrayal of the Republic of China when evidence for such is substantiated;

(2) Has been sentenced to one or more years of imprisonment;

(3) Has been subjected to the deprivation measure provided by Article XLV;

(4) Has been in civil service but has been dismissed on the strength of a disciplinary order;

(5) Guilty of misappropriation of public funds;

(6) A bankrupt whose civil rights have not yet been restituted.

Article III. Whoever has successfully passed the examination for advocates may apply for an advocate's license.

Article IV. In applying for an advocate's license, one shall submit, either directly or through the high court, to the Ministry of Justice, an application and all the relative testimonials. The license shall be issued after scrutiny of the submitted documents.

Article V. An advocate may apply for registration to two district courts and their immediately superior high court or branch high court.

Article VI. A high court or its branch, or district court shall keep a list of advocates registered which shall contain the following particulars:

(1) Name, sex, age, nationality, and address;

(2) Number of the advocate's license;

(3) Educational record and antecedents;

(4) Office;

(5) Date and number of registration;

TABLE 13—ADVOCATE'S LICENSES ISSUED BY THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE DURING 1945-1947

Province	1945	1946	1947	Total
Kiangsu	25	164	220	409
Chekiang	19	63	119	201
Kwangtung	19	104	106	229
Kwangsi	2	5	17	24
Shangtung	4	17	56	77
Shansi	12	12	17	41
Fukien	5	9	27	41
Kiangsi	4	8	17	29
Hunan	14	18	27	59
Hupeh	22	32	52	106
Honan	10	17	22	49
Hopei	10	29	39	78
Yunnan	2	. .	2	4
Kweichow	. .	. .	3	3
Anhwei	13	20	33	66
Szechwan	19	15	16	50
Kansu	7	5	1	13
Shensi	4	3	5	12
Liaoning	4	4	11	19
Liaopei	. .	. .	1	1
Jehol	. .	. .	2	2
Kirin	. .	. .	3	3
Suiyuan	. .	. .	1	1
Chinghai	3	. .	. .	3
Sikang	1	. .	. .	1
TOTAL	199	525	797	1,521

Source: Ministry of Justice

(6) Date of admission to the bar;
(7) Disciplinary action, if any;
(8) Number of registration with other courts.

Article VII. An advocate may practise in the courts with which he has registered and in the Supreme Court.

Article VIII. The president of the branch high court and of the district court, respectively, shall submit the lists of the registered advocates to the high court.

Thereupon, the president of the high court shall forward these lists together with the list of his own court to the Supreme Court and shall make a monthly report to the Ministry of Justice.

The same procedure shall apply in the case of cancellation of registration.

Article IX. No advocate is permitted to practise unless he has been admitted to the bar.

A bar association shall be organized in the district in which the district court is located, if and when the registered advocates number 15 or more. If less, an advocate shall join the bar association of the district in which the neighboring district court is located or a joint bar association shall be inaugurated.

A joint national bar association may be established at the suggestion of seven or more local bar associations and with the approval of more than one-half of the total of the local bar associations of the country.

Article X. The joint national bar association is within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Affairs while a local bar association falls under the jurisdiction of the provincial, municipal or *hsien* administrative organization of social affairs. However, the professional pursuits of the bar shall be under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Justice and of the chief procurator of the district court of the locality.

Article XI. The bar association shall elect its directors and supervisors at a members' convention. The quotas shall be as follows:

(1) Each local bar association shall have from three to 21 directors and one to seven supervisors;
(2) The joint national bar association shall have from nine to thirty-one directors and from three to nine supervisors.

The tenure of office of both the directors and the supervisors shall be two years. In either case, however, they are eligible for re-election to a second term.

Article XII. The bar association shall hold an annual members' convention. In case of necessity, however, an extraordinary convention may be convoked at the request of one-fifth of the members.

Article XIII. The bar association shall enact its own regulations and shall request the district court of the locality to have the same forwarded, through the high court, to the Ministry of Justice for approval. Besides, the regulations shall be duly registered with the administrative organization of social affairs of the locality.

The same procedure shall apply in case of amendment of the regulations.

Article XIV. The regulations of the bar association shall include the following provisions:

(1) Title and address;
(2) List of directors and supervisors, and their deputies, method of election and scope of their authority and duties;
(3) Rules for members' conventions, and directors' and supervisors' conferences;
(4) Admission and withdrawal of members;
(5) Membership dues;
(6) Measures for charging legal fees and their maximums;
(7) Method for preserving the discipline of advocates;
(8) Method for notification of details of convention or conference;
(9) Measures for the enforcement of legal aid for the general public;
(10) Other necessary details relating to the administration of association affairs.

Article XV. With the exception of the following, the bar association is not permitted to propose or to decide:

(1) Matters specified by the laws and by-laws and the regulations of the bar association;
(2) Matters consulted on or inquired about by the Judicial Yuan, the Ministry of Justice, the court or the chief procurator, or the administrative organization of social affairs in charge of the association;
(3) Matters pertaining to proposal of amendment of laws and decrees, judicial affairs, or the common welfare of advocates to the Judicial Yuan, the Ministry of Justice, the court or the chief procurator, or the administrative organization of social affairs in charge of the association.

Article XVI. The administrative organization of social affairs of the locality in which the bar association is established shall be requested to send one of its officers to attend and supervise every conference of the association.

The chief procurator of the district court of the locality shall attend every members' convention of the bar association, and may also attend other conferences and examine the minutes of such meetings.

Article XVII. Any act of the bar association violating the laws and the by-laws, or the regulations of the bar association may lead to the following disciplinary measures by the administrative organization of social affairs of the locality in which the association is established:

(1) Caution;
(2) Nullification of resolution passed;
(3) Reorganization;
(4) Dissolution.

The power to mete out the first and second disciplinary measures mentioned in the preceding paragraph is also vested in the hands of the chief procurator of the district court of the locality and of the chief procurator of a superior court.

Article XVIII. The following information shall be submitted by the bar association to the administrative organization of social affairs in charge and the chief procurator of the district court of the locality in which the association is established:

(1) List of members and their admission or withdrawal;
(2) Election of directors and supervisors and their names;
(3) Date and place for members' convention or conference of directors and supervisors and details of such meetings;
(4) Proposals and resolutions.

This information shall be forwarded by the administrative organization of social affairs in charge and the chief procurator of the district court of the locality, respectively, to the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Justice through the various organs or jurisdictions concerned.

Article XIX. An advocate who has received a power of attorney from his client or by order of the court may perform such duties in the court as specified by law and conduct other legal affairs.

An advocate may, by provision of special laws, perform such duties as specified by law before a military organ or a military tribunal.

Article XX. An advocate shall establish an office in the district in which the district court, before which he practises, is located. Within the same district, establishment of more than two offices or setting up of places of identical character by the same advocate is prohibited.

Article XXI. Unless on valid grounds, no refusal to conform to the court's order to perform duties such as specified by law is justified.

Article XXII. Once retained, the advocate shall exert his utmost, on behalf of his client, in collecting evidence and unfolding the facts of the case.

Article XXIII. After the acceptance of the power of attorney, the advocates shall not without proper and just ground terminate the relationship. If the termination is inevitable, it shall take place at least ten days prior to the date of trial, provided the client has been duly informed and his consent obtained.

Article XXIV. Dereliction or neglect on the part of the advocate shall entitle the client to claim damages he may consequently have sustained.

Article XXV. An advocate shall not execute his duty under any one of the following conditions:

(1) That he has previously accepted the power of attorney of his client's opponent or has previously had consultation with the latter with promise to assist;
(2) That the case has been adjudicated by the advocate at the time when he was a judge or procurator;
(3) That the case has been disposed of by the advocate when he served as an arbitrator in accordance with arbitration procedure.

An advocate shall refuse to comply with his client's request to perform any act incompatible with his duties.

Article XXVI. An advocate, in performing his duties before the court, shall observe the rules of the court.

Article XXVII. An advocate shall not mislead or withhold truth from the court and his client.

Article XXVIII. An advocate shall refrain from any act which may lead to loss of reputation and confidence.

Article XXIX. No advocate shall, either under his own name or under that of another, insert advertisements of a character bordering on blackmail.

Article XXX.* No advocate shall become concurrently a public functionary except in the following capacities:

(1) People's delegate to a representative organ other than president of a local council;
(2) Principal of a school;

* This article was revised and promulgated by the National Government on March 23, 1948.

(3) Undertaking temporary duties specially assigned by the Central or local authorities.

Article XXXI. No advocate shall concurrently conduct commercial business, except with the approval of the high court or its branch with which he has registered, provided, however, that his commercial dealings in no way conflict with his legal practice.

Article XXXII. No advocate is allowed to entertain, or be entertained by, members of the judicial staff of the district wherein he has his practice.

Article XXXIII. No advocate shall subrogate the right under dispute between his client and the opponent.

Article XXXIV. No advocate shall instigate or unduly encourage litigations or by improper means solicit cases.

Article XXXV. No advocate shall, without the slightest apparent cause of action, institute a proceeding or appeal or take exception on behalf of his client.

Article XXXVI. No advocate shall, in contravention of the laws and by-laws or the regulations of the bar association, demand, extort or accept any extra remuneration.

Article XXXVII. No judicial staff member shall, within three years after the date of registration, become an advocate and practise within the district in which the court to which he has once been attached is located.

Article XXXVIII. No advocate shall, within a year after the cancellation of his resignation, become a judicial official in the court of the district in which he has once had his practice.

Article XXXIX. If an advocate is related to the president or the chief procurator of the court, as a legal spouse, by blood within the fifth degree, by matrimony within the third degree, he shall not register with the court concerned.

When and if such circumstances as described in the preceding paragraph exist between the advocate and the judge or procurator of a case, the former shall withdraw from the case.

Article XL. An advocate under one of the following conditions is subject to disciplinary action:

(1) That his conduct is repugnant to the provisions of Articles XX, XXI, XXIII, XXV, and XXVII to XXXVI.

(2) That he has committed a crime for which he should receive punishment;

(3) That his conduct is repugnant to the regulations of the bar association and that the nature thereof is serious.

Article XLI. When the advocate is subject to disciplinary action, the chief procurator of either the high court or its branch, or of the district court, by attribution, shall refer to the Advocates' Disciplinary Committee for necessary action.

When the bar association decides that the advocate shall be subject to disciplinary action, by a resolution passed at either a members' convention or a directors' and supervisors' conference, it shall request the chief procurator of the court concerned to take necessary steps. Thereupon the latter shall proceed through the usual channel.

Article XLII. The Advocates' Disciplinary Committee is composed of the president and the chief judge of the high court and four judges, with the president serving as the chairman.

Article XLIII. If dissatisfied with the decision of the Advocates' Disciplinary Committee, either the person against whom the disciplinary measure is taken or the chief procurator is entitled to appeal to the Advocates Disciplinary Reconsideration Committee.

Article XLIV. The Advocates' Disciplinary Reconsideration Committee is composed of the president of the Supreme Court and the chief judges and judges, four in number, with the former as the chairman.

Article XLV. Disciplinary measures are as follows:

(1) Caution;
(2) Reprimand;
(3) Suspension of practice for not more than two years and not less than two months;
(4) Expulsion.

Article XLVI. Advocates who have procured advocate's licenses prior to the enforcement of this Act but who do not possess qualifications specified by Article I and II are subject to selection, and failure to meet the requirements of selection shall justify revocation of qualification as an advocate.

Method for selection shall be prescribed by the Ministry of Justice.

Article XLVII. Nationals of any foreign country under whose law Chinese citizens are admissible to advocacy may apply for the examinations for advocates in accordance with Chinese law.

Those who have successfully passed the examinations mentioned in the preceding paragraph and have been issued advocate's licenses shall, prior to taking up practice in China, obtain permission from the Ministry of Justice.

Those who have taken out advocate's licenses before this Act comes into force shall come within the scope of the provisions of the two preceding paragraphs.

Article XLVIII. Foreign nationals who have obtained permission to serve as advocates in China shall abide by all Chinese laws and by-laws and the regulations of the bar association.

Any violation of the provisions specified in the preceding paragraph may incur, in addition to penalty prescribed by the laws and by-laws, withdrawal of permission and revocation of the advocate's license by the Ministry of Justice.

Article XLIX. Foreign nationals permitted to serve as advocates in China shall use the Chinese language during court proceedings and their papers submitted shall also be in the Chinese language.

Article L. Provisions regulating the enforcement of this Act are to be prescribed by the Ministry of Justice in conjunction with the Ministry of Social Affairs, subject to the approval of the Executive Yuan.

Detailed provisions regarding advocates' disciplinary procedure are to be prescribed also by the Ministry of Justice, and to be approved by the Executive Yuan and the Judicial Yuan.

Article LI. This Act shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

POLICE

1. History

China's first attempt at creating a modern police was made in 1905 with the establishment of a Ministry of Police under the Manchu Government. Later, when the Ministry of Interior came into being, the Ministry of Police was reorganized to become a department of the new ministry.

There was a police department in every province in the days of the Peking Government, and a police bureau in every *hsien* or district government. After the Northern Expedition in 1927, the provincial police departments were absorbed by the Civil Affairs Department, while in the *hsien*, the police bureaus were renamed public security bureaus. In addition there were the metropolitan police in Nanking, and provincial or municipal public security bureaus in provincial capitals or municipalities, and river public security bureaus.

In June, 1936, the Ministry of Interior, with the approval of the Executive Yuan, worked out a plan for the reorganization of the police administration. The plan went into effect in January, 1937, to standardize the administrative machinery, quality, treatment and equipment for police organizations and personnel all over the country. It was suspended upon the outbreak of the war that year.

Immediately after V-J Day, the Ministry of Interior mapped out a five-year plan for police reorganization. In August, 1946, the Directorate-General of Police was created under the ministry. Meanwhile, police and security departments were set up in the provinces, with powers to direct both police and security forces.

II. Police Organizations

A. Police Structure: The Directorate-General of Police under the Ministry of Interior is in charge of police administration throughout the country. Under every provincial government, there is a police department. The provincial capitals in turn have their provincial police bureaus; the municipalities, their municipal police bureaus. There are police bureaus or stations in *hsien* and branches in *hsiang*. Located at important places or commercial centers are police bureaus directly under the provincial police departments. Special branches include the Coastal Police Bureau and Inland River Police Corps.

Up to October, 1948, 14 provinces including Shantung, Hopei, Honan, Taiwan and the Nine Northeastern provinces had set up police departments. In other provinces, police affairs were handled by police sections under the Civil Affairs Department.

In May, 1947, the National Government promulgated the organic laws for provincial police and security departments, which were designed to amalgamate provincial police and security authorities into one single organization. Such departments were later established in Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Kweichow and Yunnan.

B. Provincial Police Organizations: The organic laws governing the police bureaus or stations under the provincial governments have to be submitted to the Central Government for approval. In 1948, organizations whose organic laws were approved by the Executive Yuan included the provincial police bureaus in Anhwei, Liaopei, Shensi, Jehol, Honan, Kweichow, Shangtung, Hunan, Kansu and Fukien; the municipal bureaus at Pengpu in Anhwei, Chefoo and Weihaiwei in Shantung, Swatow in Kwangtung, Tangshan and Shihmen in Hopei, Amoy in Fukien, Changchun in Kirin,

Hengyang in Hunan, Kweisui and Paotow in Suiyuan, Hsuchow in Kiangsu and Anshan, Chinchow and Yingkow in Liaoning, and those directly under the provincial authorities: Ningpo in Chekiang, and Leiho, Chiaocho, Chumatien, Chowkow and Hwaitien in Honan.

C. *Hsien* Police Organizations. Every *hsien* should have one police bureau, classified into 1st, 2nd or 3rd grade, depending on the population, area and economic conditions of the locality and governed by a set of unified measures passed by the provincial government. The measures submitted in 1947 by the provincial governments of Liaoning, Jehol, Shensi, Kiangsi, Shansi, Fukien, Honan, Suiyuan and Hopei were approved by the Ministry of Interior and duly enforced.

D. High Police Superintendent: In a *hsien* whose population exceeds 300,000 or which occupies an important position for defense or other special reasons, the local police superintendent may be given the recommended rank, one rank higher than that of an ordinary *hsien*. The Ministry of Interior confirmed the appointment of police superintendents of 22 such *hsien* in Szechwan, 7 *hsien* in Kwangsi, 14 in Shantung, 12 in Kiangsu, 22 in Chekiang, 14 in Honan, 16 in Shensi, 21 in Anhwei, 6 in Shansi and 16 *hsien* in Fukien in 1947.

E. River Police Organizations: River police organizations for the provinces have yet to be standardized. During 1948, the organic laws of river police bureaus in Antung, Liaoning, Hupeh and Fukien and river police corps in Kiangsi and Shantung were approved by the ministry.

F. Personnel and Organization: The number of officers and men in each police establishment varies in accordance with the needs of a particular locality. Generally speaking, each police corps is composed of three companies, each company, three groups and each group, 30 officers and men. The number of police personnel in the rural districts ranges from a couple of dozen to a few hundred.

G. Current Police Strength: Up to the end of 1947, there were eight provincial police and security departments, 14 provincial police departments, 23 provincial bureaus, 38 municipal police bureaus, 16 police bureaus and corps, 1,419 *hsien* police bureaus and 299 *hsien* police stations.

The table on page 227 shows the police system and its strength at the end of 1947.

III. Police at Work

Among the functions of the police in China, the more important ones are those dealing with social security, public health, city traffic, and criminal investigation.

The criminal division formerly consisted of detectives attached to each of the police units, and its usefulness was limited to the investigation of criminal cases. After the establishment of the Directorate-General of Police, detective corps in important provinces and municipalities were reorganized into Criminal Police Corps and by the end of 1947, they were scattered in the following 28 provinces and municipalities:

Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Nanking, Chungking, Mukden, Sian, Hankow, Hopei, Kweichow, Kiangsu, Hupeh, Shantung, Anhwei, Shansi, Honan, Hunan, Kansu, Chahar, Liaopei, Hangchow, Kweisui, Paotow, Pengpu, Hengyang, Changchun, Hsuchow and Taiwan. The number of officers and men in these corps totalled 3,249.

The detective corps in other provinces and municipalities are to be reorganized into Criminal Police Corps after their personnel has undergone the necessary training.

In addition, a Central Criminal Laboratory to provide a training center for personnel was set up in March, 1947, in Nanking under the Directorate-General of Police. Students of the former Sino-American Cooperative Institute were sent to the provinces to strengthen the local criminal police corps.

The Central Criminal Laboratory had nine sections: Photography, fingerprint, electrical instruments, physics and chemistry, medical, fire-arm examination, preservation, police dogs and pigeons. Most of its equipment came from the wartime Sino-American Cooperative Institute. In October, 1947, it also gained possession of some German-made instruments left behind in Changchun and Mukden by the Japanese.

The Laboratory was responsible for the unification of the finger-print system in China. When the National Government promulgated the Mandate for General Amnesty, the Directorate-General of Police helped the judicial authorities fingerprint all convicts to be benefited by the pardon.

The Foreign Relations Police was in charge of alien registration, residential permits, applications for naturalization, passport examination at airports, railway stations and border regions and also in charge of affairs concerning stateless persons. Its responsibility has been greatly increased since the abrogation of the extraterritoriality and the signing of new treaties between China and the western countries.

Table I—Police System at End of 1947

- Executive Yuan
  - Municipal Governments (Special) .... Police Bureaus .... Police Training Centers
  - Ministry of Interior—Directorate-General of Police ....
    - Police Corps
    - Central Police Academy
    - Central Police Academy Branches
    - Metropolitan Police Force
    - Frontier Police Bureaus
  - Provincial Governments ....
    - Police and Security Departments (or Police Departments) ....
      - Police Training Centers
      - Security Police Corps
      - River Police Bureaus (Corps)
      - Coastal Police Bureaus
      - Police Bureaus
      - Provincial Police Bureaus
    - ....
      - Administrative Bureaus—Police Stations
      - *Hsien* Government—Police Bureaus
    - Municipal Governments—(Ordinary) Police Bureaus

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—POLICE ESTABLISHMENTS AT END OF 1947

Item	Kiangsu	Chekiang	Anhwei	Kiangsi	Hupeh	Hunan	Szechwan	Sikang
Provincial Police Security Departments		1	..	1	1	1	..	..
Municipal Police Bureaus	2	1	2	1	..	1	1	..
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	..
Provincial Bureaus	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1
Provincial River Police Bureaus	5	2	1	..	1	..	1	..
Provincial River Police Corps	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps	1	..	..		..	27	17	..
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies	..	4	..	..	..	102	68	..
I Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	16	37	..	..	3	11	30	5
II Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	25	30	..	..	9	26	34	5
III Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	20	9	..	..	36	39	..	4
Total of *Hsien* Police Bureaus	61	76	30	83	48	76	64	14
Hsien Police Stations	..	..	26	..	22	1	76	19
**Hsien* Security Police Companies	..	53	6	..	230	103	272	..
**Hsien* Security Police Groups	..	57	..	..	705	..	..	1
Branches of Police Bureaus	191	14	..	..	20	12	29	..
Police Stations	..	194	30	49	70	224	205	..
Police Sub-stations	271	254	..	26	177	200	208	22
Police Squads	106	76	..	..	202	994	18	4
Fire Brigades	7	7	..	..	4	14	7	1
Criminal Police Corps	37	68	..	..	5	1	..	..
Special Police Corps (Stations)	42	5	..	..	1	..	9	..
Number of Police Officers	3,494	2,753	1,078	2,629	3,233	3,242	5,681	404
Number of Police Sergeants	..	600	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of Policemen	21,461	21,468	9,368	28,702	43,375	53,045	38,786	1,598
Total of Police Personnel	24,955	24,821	10,446	31,331	46,608	56,287	44,467	2,002
Remarks		A	B	B	A	..	..	..

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.
B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.
* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.
** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—*Continued*

Item	Fukien	Kwangtung	Kwangsi	Yunnan	Kweichow	Hopei	Taiwan	Sinkiang
Provincial Police Security Departments	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	..
Municipal Police Bureaus	1	2	3	..	..	2	9	1
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..
Provincial Bureaus	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	..
Provincial River Police Bureaus	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Provincial River Police Corps	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps	1	3	..	..	..	3	1	1
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies	2	11	..	..	..	10	..	4
I Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	..	19	..	..	..	7	8	20
II Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	..	28	..	..	..	5	..	61
III Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	..	46	..	..	..	13	..	..
Total of *Hsien* Police Bureaus	66	93	31	112	63	**34	8	81
Hsien Police Stations	..	7	68	..	..	..	..	..
**Hsien* Security Police Companies	..	289	99	..	155	183	..	..
**Hsien* Security Police Groups	..	13	..	..	..	552	..	22
Branches of Police Bureaus	10	13	..	..	..	19	11	5
Police Stations	134	185	..	119	60	187	53	16
Police Sub-stations	41	243	..	9	30	55	..	169
Police Squads	13	1,356	..	111	49	..	1,416	7
Fire Brigades	3	15	..	..	..	4	17	1
Criminal Police Corps	..	24	..	..	..	6	..	1
Special Police Corps (Stations)		..	..	..	..	1	1	2
Number of Police Officers	1,431	6,088	1,409	729	2,337	2,582	1,952	2,111
Number of Police Sergeants	259	38,903	..	..	..	..	7,358	..
Number of Policemen	6,383	..	12,321	9,125	22,148	29,319	931	5,157
Total of Police Personnel	8,073	44,991	13,730	9,854	24,485	31,901	10,241	7,268
Remarks	..	A	B	B	AB	A	..	..

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.
B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.
* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.
** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—*Continued*

Item	Ningsia	Suiyuan	Jehol	Hokiang	Nunkiang	Kirin	Antung	Liaopei
Provincial Police Security Departments	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1
Municipal Police Bureaus	..	2	..	..	..	1	2	..
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Provincial Bureaus	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1
Provincial River Police Bureaus	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Provincial River Police Corps	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..
I Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	4	6	4	..	5	2	..	4
II Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	5	6	4	..	7	5	..	5
III Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	3	10	5	..	5	3	..	4
Total of *Hsien* Police Bureaus	12	22	13	..	17	10	..	13
Hsien Police Stations	1	..	..	..	2	..	..	..
**Hsien* Security Police Companies	..	25	..	..	..	5	..	..
**Hsien* Security Police Groups	..	75	..	..	..	15	..	12
Branches of Police Bureaus	4	9	62	..	..	66	..	2
Police Stations	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	63
Police Sub-stations	..	33	140	..	..	131	..	175
Police Squads	1	98	48	..	..	191	..	169
Fire Brigades	4	2	8	..	1	7	..	10
Criminal Police Corps	1	2	9	..	1	12	..	10
Special Police Corps (Stations)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of Police Officers	127	528	675	24	39	1,481	575	916
Number of Police Sergeants	40	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Number of Policemen	1,127	4,743	4,497	..	..	3,850	6,700	3,153
Total of Police Personnel	1,294	5,271	5,172	24	39	5,331	7,275	4,069
Remarks	..	..	..	..	..	..	B	A

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.
B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.
* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.
** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—*Continued*

Item	Liaoning	Chinghai	Kansu	Shensi	Shansi	Honan	Shantung	Total
Provincial Police Security Departments	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	19
Municipal Police Bureaus	5	..	..	..	..	..	2	38
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities	..	..	..	4	..	6	..	16
Provincial Bureaus	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	23
Provincial River Police Bureaus	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	13
Provincial River Police Corps	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	3
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	56
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	211
I Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	9	..	..	..	24	..	36	250
II Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	10	..	..	..	29	..	48	342
III Class *Hsien* Police Bureaus	6	..	..	..	8	..	23	234
Total of *Hsien* Police Bureaus	25	..	14	77	61	108	107	1,419
Hsien Police Stations	..	18	54	2	..	3	..	299
**Hsien* Security Police Companies	..	..	55	163	..	..	131	1,769
**Hsien* Security Police Groups	..	..	..	..	..	..	393	1,845
Branches of Police Bureaus	15	5	..	..	..	..	11	498
Police Stations	116	..	..	7	267	56	98	2,134
Police Sub-stations	306	..	115	250	62	14	99	3,030
Police Squads	263	..	24	11	250	..	91	5,498
Fire Brigades	9	..	..	..	2	..	6	129
Criminal Police Corps	7	..	..	..	64	..	17	265
Special Police Corps (Stations)	..	..	2	..	4	..	13	80
Number of Police Officers	2,398	214	478	2,569	1,919	1,941	1,915	56,952
Number of Police Sergeants	327	..	..	..	240	..	..	47,727
Number of Policemen	7,760	1,438	4,380	30,177	16,022	15,362	15,961	418,363
Total of Police Personnel	10,485	1,652	4,858	32,746	18,181	17,303	17,876	523,042
Remarks	..	..	B	B	..	B	..	..

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.
B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.
* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.
** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

Table 3—Police Personnel—1946 and 1947

Unit	Police Personnel in 1947				Police Personnel in 1946
	Total	Officers	Sergeants	Policemen	
Kiangsu	24,955	3,494	..	21,461	20,858
Chekiang	24,821	2,753	600	21,468	25,700
Hupeh	46,608	3,233	..	43,375	43,950
Hunan	56,287	3,242	..	53,045	57,185
Szechwan	44,467	5,681	..	38,786	37,145
Sikang	2,002	404	..	1,598	1,902
Hopei	31,901	2,582	..	29,319	35,396
Shantung	17,876	1,915	..	15,961	9,753
Shansi	18,181	1,919	240	16,022	19,539
Chinghai	1,652	214	..	1,438	1,642
Fukien	8,073	1,431	259	6,383	7,976
Kwangtung	44,991	6,088	..	38,903	45,137
Suiyuan	5,271	528	..	4,743	1,168
Ningsia	1,294	127	40	1,127	1,445
Sinkiang	7,268	2,111	..	5,157	8,433
Jehol	5,172	675	..	4,497	..
Liaoning	10,485	2,398	327	7,760	13,541
Liaopei	4,069	916	..	3,153	3,206
Kirin	5,331	1,481	..	3,850	5,176
Nunkiang	39	39	..	..	..
Hokiang	24	24	..	..	..
Taiwan	10,241	1,952	7,358	931	9,438
Nanking	8,228	1,227	2,665	4,336	4,983
Shanghai	12,971	2,011	622	10,338	11,827
Peiping	11,273	1,396	..	9,877	14,997
Tientsin	8,763	1,023	..	7,740	12,783
Tsingtao	3,597	448	..	3,149	4,111
Mukden	4,010	472	..	3,538	3,956
Hankow	3,255	421	..	2,834	3,090
Chungking	4,782	958	..	3,824	5,010
M.O.I.'s 1st Corps	3,444	402	..	3,042	2,658
M.O.I.'s 2nd Corps	7,146	586	..	6,560	7,013
Grand Total	438,477	52,151	12,111	374,215	419,018

Source: Ministry of Interior

Remarks: 1. Figures of the personnel in Police and Security Departments in Chekiang, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Hopei, and Liaopei were not included.
2. The figures of the police personnel for 1947 in Anhwei, Kiangsi, Yunnan, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Antung, Hsingan, Sungkiang, Heilungkiang, Kweichow, Chahar, Canton and Sian were not received when this table was compiled.
3. The figures of police personnel for 1946 in Nunkiang and Hokiang were not available. Harbin and Dairen were in the hands of Chinese Communists.
4. Included in the Nanking police staff in 1947 were 291 employees.
5. On the Ministry of Interior Corps in 1947 were 3,000 manual laborers.

Foreign relations sections were attached to police bureaus in big cities or places frequented by foreigners such as summer resorts. The foreign relations section in the Shanghai police bureau was enlarged into a department in 1947.

During 1947, 20 officers and 80 non-commissioned officers, specially trained to handle affairs concerning aliens in China, were stationed in Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping and Canton.

In August, 1948, according to police statistics, there were 78,341 aliens residing in 11 municipalities and 25 provinces. Distribution of these alien residents was as follows: Municipalities—Shanghai, 40,352; Mukden, 14,256; Tientsin, 4,873; Peiping, 3,681; Tsingtao, 2,008; Nanking, 1,066; Hankow, 727; Canton, 404; Chungking, 147; Harbin, 105; and Sian, 85. *Provinces*—Anhwei, 201; Chekiang, 234; Chinghai, 24; Fukien, 356; Honan, 379; Hopei, 348; Hunan, 229; Hupeh, 296; Jehol, 9; Kansu, 136; Kiangsi, 296; Kiangsu, 352; Kwangsi, 137; Kwangtung, 296; Kweichow, 104; Ningsia, 25; Shansi, 102; Shantung, 588; Shensi, 159; Sikang, 18; Sinkiang, 1,685; Suiyuan, 80; Szechwan, 191; Taiwan, 3,995; and Yunnan, 397.

The Public Health Police help local health authorities inspect foods and beverages and enforce anti-epidemic precautions and quarantine regulations at airfields and harbors, and regulations governing hospitals, doctors, dentists, and pharmaceutics.

Table 4—Police Organizations in Municipalities Directly Under the Executive Yuan in 1946 and 1947

Organization	1946	1947
Municipal Police Bureaus	5	8
Police Bureaus in Nanking	11	12
River Police Bureaus	..	1
Police Sub-Bureaus	77	108
Police Stations	77	86
River Police Stations	..	6
Police Sub-Stations	203	277
Police Squads	132	803

Source: Ministry of Interior

The police bureaus in Nanking were under the Metropolitan Police Force.

The police bureaus in Sian had not been set up while those at Dairen and Harbin were not known as the two cities were in communist hands.

Table 5—Police Organizations in Provinces and *Hsien* in 1946 and 1947

Organization	1946	1947
Provincial Police or Police and Security Departments	16	19
Provincial Police Bureaus	20	23
Municipal Police Bureaus	38	38
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities	30	16
Provincial or Municipal Security Police Corps	152	56
Provincial River Police Bureaus (Corps)	11	16
Hsien Police Bureaus	1,255	1,419
Hsien Police Stations	338	299
Hsien Security Police Companies	847	1,769
Police Sub-Bureaus	..	498
Police Stations	1,713	2,134
Police Sub-Stations	2,283	3,030
Police Squads	3,921	5,498
Fire Brigades	..	129
Criminal Police Corps	..	265

Source: Ministry of Interior

Notes: 1. The *Hsien* security police companies originally under provincial authorities in Hopei were transferred to the various *Hsien* authorities at the beginning of 1947.
2. Police organizations in provinces and *Hsien* of which no figures for 1946 were available were not listed here.

The Traffic Police regulate motor vehicles in big cities. Small groups of traffic police usually travelled on trains and steamers or were stationed at wharves and railway stations to maintain law and order.

Special police contingents protected forests, fishing boats and fishermen, mines and salt beds or beaches.

IV. Police Education

The first school for police officers in China was established in 1901. In 1917 a police academy was set up in Peking.

The Ministry of Interior under the National Government in Nanking established a chain of police academies in 1929 in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shansi, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Shensi, Shantung, Yunnan, Hopei, Kansu, Chinghai, Fukien and Kwangsi. After the Japanese invasion of the Northeastern Provinces in 1931, all provincial police academies except those in Chekiang, Yunnan and Hopei were closed down.

In 1934, the police academy in Peiping was moved to Nanking and was merged two years later with the Chekiang police academy to become the Central Police Academy. All other provincial academies were abolished.

The Central Police Academy was removed to Chungking shortly after the war where it remained until V-J Day. A northwestern police training class and a southeastern police training class were created in Sian and Hunan, respectively, to meet local needs for trained police officers. In 1944, the class at Sian was renamed the First Branch of the Central Police Academy and the one in Hunan, the Second Branch. The academy was moved to Canton after V-J Day. At the same time (1944) the police academy in Sinkiang was reorganized into the Third Branch.

After V-J Day, the Central Police Academy returned to Nanking. Its old campus in Chungking was used to start the Fourth Branch. The Fifth and Sixth Branches were later set up in Peiping and Mukden. In August, 1946 the First and the Third Branches were amalgamated. And the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Branches were accordingly renumbered the Third, Fourth and Fifth.

During the war the Central Police Academy conducted special police training classes in Hunan, Kweichow, Szechwan, Kansu and Fukien. Besides regular courses, the cadets were taught political science, military organization, economic affairs and crime detection technique. The period of training lasted from 18 months to two years. The graduates were assigned mostly to underground work behind the enemy lines.

In November, 1946 these classes were merged with the Central Police Academy and their graduates took up regular police jobs. Meanwhile, all branches of the academy were put under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Interior. Up to April, 1947, altogether 9,813 police officers had graduated from the special classes and 14,758 from the academy and its branches. Since its founding, the Central Police Academy had up to April, 1947, trained 24,571 police officers.

As part of the demobilization program, some army officers were admitted to the academy to be trained as police officers. In March and June, 1946, 1,202 1st and 2nd lieutenants entered the academy. In June, 1946, 709 ex-colonels and ex-lieutenant-colonels, and 4,012 demobilized majors, captains and 1st lieutenants began a six-month course in the academy and its branches. Beginning August, 1946, 41 demobilized major-generals underwent four months of training and then received appointments in the Directorate-General of Police. All these ex-army officers were graduated in the spring of 1947 and assigned to duties in the provinces.

Systematic training for policemen began in 1905 with the establishment of a Ministry of Police in Peking and of police training centers in the provinces. In 1913, police commissioners' offices were set up in all big cities in China and under them a number of police training centers were opened. The standard of training, however, was anything but uniform.

After the inauguration of the National Government the Ministry of Interior promulgated in 1929, 1936 and 1942 a series of regulations concerning police training. Primary school graduates were recruited for three-to-six months' training to become policemen. A selected number of policemen from various parts of the country were brought to Nanking for training in senior classes to become officers.

In 1944, training centers were functioning in Chekiang, Hunan, Honan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Shensi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechwan and Kansu. There were two more training centers in Chungking, one under the municipal police bureau and the other under the police corps of the Ministry of Interior. However, because of lack of adequate funds the training centers in Honan, Kwangsi and Shensi had to be closed in 1945. About the same time, the Szechwan Training Center opened a branch in the eastern part of the province and the Hunan Training Center set up a branch at Hungkiang. There were 14 police training centers in that year, including the River Police Training Center in Fukien.

After V-J Day, police training centers in various provinces were restored one after another, bringing the national total to 35. During 1946, 27,929 policemen, 8,850 sergeants, 2,114 staff sergeants and 8,955 reserve officers were graduated from these centers.

Up to the end of 1947, there were 37 police training centers in China. Two of them were under the 1st and 2nd Police Corps of the Ministry of Interior, while the others were located in Chungking, Tsingtao, Tientsen, Peiping, Shanghai, Nanking, Liaoning, Hopei, Honan, Taiwan, Shansi, Shantung, Hupeh, Kansu, Shensi, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Anhwei, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Antung, Liaopei, Chahar, Jehol, Sikang, Fukien (plus a River Police Training Center), Kwangtung, Szechwan (plus its branch) and Hunan (plus three branches). The total number of police sergeants graduated from these training centers in 1947 was 12,765, and that of policemen, 62,120. Still under training were 1,876 cadets and 1,736 for police sergeants, of whom 1,132 were ex-army officers.

CHAPTER 10

POLITICAL PARTIES

Modern political parties appeared in China toward the end of the Manchu dynasty. Most important were Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary party, and the constitutional monarchic party of Kang Yu-wei and Liang Chi-chao. Formerly there were only secret societies of Chinese patriots in early Manchu days. Their sole objective was overthrow of the Manchu regime and restoration of the Ming Dynasty.

After the Republic was founded in 1912, many small parties and cliques were formed. Most of them revolved around Dr. Sun's Kuomintang and the Progressive party, a loose body of several factions and groups including Liang Chi-chao's "Democratic" party. Yuan Shi-kai, second president of the Republic, wanted to be emperor and ordered dissolution of the Kuomintang and the Progressive party.

Yuan died in 1916 after his abortive monarchial attempt. Warlords then plunged into a series of civil wars. From 1916 to 1926, while numerous parties fought for spoils in Peking (now Peiping), the Kuomintang, based in Canton, waited watchfully. The Chinese Communist party was organized during this period.

In 1924 the Kuomintang was thoroughly reorganized. Serious preparations were begun for a military campaign against the war lords in central and north China. Known as The Northern Expedition, revolutionary armies under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek advanced northward from Kwangtung in 1926. By 1928 the country was unified. The National Government was established in Nanking in 1927.

As taught by Dr. Sun, the Period of Military Rule was promptly concluded and the Period of Political Tutelage was begun by the Kuomintang. The Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931, and the war in 1937-45, delayed the final period, that of Constitutional Government until December 25, 1946, when China's new constitution was adopted by the National Assembly.

When the war started in 1937, the Kuomintang and the National Government invited the Communists to join in the national war effort, and exchanged letters with the National Socialist party (now Democratic Socialist), and the Young China party. This led to post-war inter-party cooperation and the coalition government of 1947. Only the Communist party refused to participate.

Soon after the war ended, the Communist party resumed its early policy of armed rebellion. While nominally part of the National Army during the war, the Communist armies were engaged in expansion, and disobeyed military orders. For this the National Government outlawed the Communist party and ordered its suppression in July, 1947.

Pro-Communist minority factions and groups formed the "Democratic League," self-styled the "third party," but later indistinguishable from the Communist party. It too was outlawed by the National Government in October, 1947.

Since the inauguration of constitutional government more than 40 political parties and societies have made their appearance. Most of them are loosely organized and of little influence.

The following review of major political parties includes Kuomintang, the Communist party, the Democratic League, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialist party, the Third party, the National Association of Vocational Education, the National Salvation Association, and the Rural Reconstruction Group.

THE KUOMINTANG

A Brief History

Founded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Kuomintang was China's ruling party during the "Period of Political Tutelage," 1928 to 1948. This party overthrew the Manchu dynasty in 1911, established the Republic in 1912, defeated the warlords, unified the country in 1926-28, and led the nation to victory in the war against

Japanese aggression in 1937-45. After Dr. Sun's death in 1925, party leadership rested with Chiang Kai-shek. The latter has been the party's *Tsungtsai* or director-general since 1938.

While a student Dr. Sun recognized the need for reform in China's government, then under the corrupt and rapidly deteriorating Manchu regime. In 1894 he organized in Honolulu the Hsing Chung Hui, or the Regenerate China Society. In 1905 this was reorganized into the Chung Kuo Tung Meng Hui, or the China Brotherhood Society. In 1912, the name of the party was changed to the Kuo Ming Tang, or the National party; in 1914 to the Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang, or the Chinese Revolutionary party; and finally in 1919 to the present Kuomintang. The full party title is Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang, the Chinese National party.

(1) *Hsing Chung Hui.* Dr. Sun first used the name Hsing Chung Hui in 1892, when he secretly formed a group of sympathizers. Formally inaugurated in Honolulu in 1894, a published manifesto declared the aim to overthrow Manchu rule, and restore the nation to the Chinese. The society had chapters in Hongkong, Japan and the United States. Other anti-Manchu groups in Central and South China joined the movement by 1900.

Dr. Sun and three associates were officially branded the "Four Big Rebels." The party insigna, a White Sun on a blue field, with a red background, has since become China's national flag.

(2) *Chung Kuo Tung Meng Hui.* In August, 1905, this party was formed in Tokyo, as the second phase in the development of the Kuomintang. Its aims: overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, and building up a new nation along the lines of broad nationalism and republicanism. Adopting western ideas of government it was necessary to consider China's long past and her cultural background in the light of her current needs. This led to formulation of the *Three People's Principles,* which China later adopted as its political creed.

The party absorbed a number of small revolutionary parties and groups. Many of the revolutionaries, including Dr. Sun himself, were then taking refuge in Japan. The party's policy was summarized in four slogans: "Overthrow the Manchu Rule," "Restore the Chinese Nation," "Establish a Republic," and "Equalize Land Ownership."

The party members carried on underground activities in all the provinces of China. Chinese in Japan, Europe, North and South America, and Southeast Asia openly rallied to the revolutionary cause. Dr. Sun and his followers organized several abortive uprisings in various parts of the country before the final success came in 1911. The storming of the Viceroy's yamen in Wuchang on the night of October 10, 1911, led to the abdication of the last Manchu Emperor and to the founding of the Chinese Republic. On New Year's Day, 1912, Dr. Sun became Provisional President of the Republican Government.

(3) *Kuo Ming Tang.* In 1912, this party emerged from the reorganized Tung Meng Hui, which functioned as an ordinary political party in the Republican government. The young republic was soon torn by internal strife, during which Dr. Sun and his followers were constantly combating the reactionary forces. To preserve national unity he resigned the presidency in favor of Yuan Shih-kai, an ambitious militarist and politician, who had served under the Manchu regime.

(4) *Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang.* Realizing that the ideas of the Revolution had not yet taken root, Dr. Sun reorganized his party in 1914 into the Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang, or the Chinese Revolutionary Party, and led a nationwide revolution against Yuan Shih-kai. Not satisfied with the presidency, Yuan tried to be emperor. Dr. Sun led a revolt, which weakened Yuan's position and contributed to his collapse and death in 1916 after only 82 days on the throne.

(5) *Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang.* Yuan's death did not mean the end of reaction. For years the Peking Government remained in the hands of successive warlords. During this period civil war raged almost continuously. In 1919, the Chinese Revolutionary Party was reorganized into the present Kuomintang. The *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* were then promulgated, and a political program was announced, consisting principally of the "Three People's Principles" and the "Five-Power Constitution."

In 1923, Dr. Sun inaugurated the National Government in Canton as a step towards military action against the Peking regime. Whampoa Military Academy, whose graduates were to become the backbone of the Revolutionary Army, was opened the next year. Dr. Sun appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek principal of the Academy, but did not live to see the actual launching of the Northern Expedition. He died in 1925 in Peking, where he had gone to make a last effort to persuade Tuan Chi-jui, then Provisional Chief Executive of the Peking Government, to restore constitutional government in China.

The first national congress of the Kuomintang was held in Canton in 1924. It reaffirmed Dr. Sun's *Three People's Principles* as the party platform. With regard to foreign and domestic affairs, it adopted a definite policy with the following salient points: *Externally:* the abrogation of all unequal treaties, the settlement of foreign loans insofar as this does not impair China's political and economic interests; *Internally:* the division of central and local administrative powers on an equitable basis, the adoption of the *hsien* as the basic unit of local self-government, the introduction of universal suffrage, organizing census-taking, and the improvement of rural organization and labor conditions.

In 1926 the National Government in Canton appointed Chiang Kai-shek commander-in-Chief of the National Revolutionary Army to lead the Northern Expedition. In eight months time his forces swept across central China and captured Nanking. By the end of 1928, all the provinces below the Great Wall had been brought under a unified control. The seat of the National Government was moved to Nanking.

(6) *Dr. Sun's Political Theory and its Practice.* The teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen form the basic political doctrine of the Kuomintang. His *San Min Chu I, Three People's Principles,* refer to nationalism, people's rights, and people's livelihood. They constitute China's highest guiding principles. The new China he conceived, wherein the people will have a constitutional form of government, is to be free, independent, and equal in its relations with other nations of the world. There will also be an equitable distribution of wealth through the enforcement of three policies, the equalization of land ownership, the development of state capital, and the control of private capital.

Dr. Sun split sovereignty into two portions, the political powers to be exercised by the people, and the governing powers exercised by the government. He believed in direct democracy, and he wanted the people to have the rights of recall, initiative, and referendum, in addition to the right of election. The government, he said, should be entrusted with five powers: executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control. The last two are based on China's traditional practices. The power of examination refers to the selection of officials through competitive examinations to create an efficient civil service system. The power of control pertains to the impeachment of government officials.

Dr. Sun divided the course of national reconstruction into three periods: military operations, political tutelage, and constitutional government. During the first period everything should be subordinated to military needs. The second period begins when peace and order are completely restored in a province. Its component *hsien* or counties, must each take a detailed census, survey all land, set up an efficient self-defense force, and build all principal roads. Before a *hsien* is qualified for self-government, its people must be given training in the exercise of their four political rights. When all the *hsien* in a province have been thus prepared, that province advances into the Period of Constitutionalism, and a representative assembly is organized. Finally, when more than half of the provinces in the country have acquired a representative government, a National Assembly shall be convened to adopt and promulgate a constitution. This will be followed by the formation of a new Government responsible to the National Assembly instead of to the Party Congress.

The procedure thus laid down by Dr. Sun has been followed by the National Government since it came into power in 1927-28. The Period of Military Operations came to an end in 1928 and the following year the Period of Political Tutelage began—to last for six years. A provisional constitution was promulgated in May, 1931. In 1934 work was begun on a draft constitution which was promulgated by the National Government on May 5, 1936, to be adopted by a National Assembly scheduled to meet on November 12, 1937. The Japanese invasion delayed the realization of the program. The National Assembly was not convened until 1946, one year after the end of the war.

From the date of adoption of the plan until the outbreak of the Chinese-Japanese war, ten years later, the Kuomintang and the National Government were solving numerous problems. A new spirit had pervaded the entire nation. China, in the few years prior to the outbreak of the war, was forging ahead too speedily to suit Japanese militarists. In 1937, they launched the bitterest war ever fought on the Asiatic continent. The Kuomintang rose to the crisis by leading the Chinese people in defense of their homes and their birthright.

In March-April, 1938, the Extraordinary Party National Congress was held, at which the* *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* was adopted. Under this program, the nation's war effort was centralized under the leadership of the Kuomintang and Generalissimo Chiang who was elected *Tsungtsai* or director-general of the party at the Congress. The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps was created, and the People's Political Council was established as the highest wartime representative assembly.

* For the full text of the *Program* see *CHINA HANDBOOK, 1937-45,* published by the MacMillan Co. New York 1947.

On November 12, 1944, the Kuomintang celebrated its 50th Anniversary. President Chiang Kai-shek's address reviewing the history and mission of the party and the achievements of the Revolution, may be taken as an authoritative report on how the Kuomintang has been carrying out Dr. Sun's teachings (see Important Kuomintang Documents).

(7) *Post-War Developments.* The Kuomintang held its Sixth National Congress on May, 1945, three months before the end of the war, its main function being to conclude the Kuomintang tutelage period and return the political power to the people. The most important decision reached at the Congress was to convene the National Assembly and to adopt a constitution.

After the Government's return to Nanking from Chungking in May, 1946, preparations began for the convocation of the National Assembly. Meanwhile, negotiations were conducted between the Kuomintang and the Communist party, the Democratic League, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialist party as well as other political groups and independents, looking toward their participation in the National Assembly. The Communists and the Democratic League refused to take part, while the Young China Party, the Democratic Socialist Party and the independents joined in the National Assembly, which convened in November-December, 1946. On December 25 they adopted the Constitution, which was promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1947.

Immediately after the adoption of the Constitution, the Kuomintang invited the various parties and non-partisan leaders to join the Government. A coalition was formed in April, 1947, with the Kuomintang, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialists, and the independents participating. This coalition government served as a caretaker until the inauguration of the new government under the Constitution in June, 1948.

The most important developments in the Kuomintang itself during the period were the amalgamation of the party and the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, the revival of the Central Political Council, and the creation of an Emergency Council.

The amalgamation of the Youth Corps with the Kuomintang was decided upon in September, 1947, at the fourth plenary session of the Sixth Central Executive Committee and the Joint Conference of the Party and the Youth Corps. The latter, created in 1938 as an adjunct to the Kuomintang, had its own system of organization, with central and branch headquarters. After the amalgamation, a Board of Youth was created under the Central Executive Committee. The Board was later abolished as a measure of retrenchment.

The Central Political Council was revived after formation of the coalition government in April, 1947. During the Period of Political Tutelage, the Kuomintang C.P.C. served as the highest organ of political direction in China. Upon the outbreak of hostilities in 1937, its functions were taken over by the Supreme National Defense Conference, which in January, 1939, was reorganized into the Supreme National Defense Council. The C.P.C. now functions purely as a party organ concerned with political affairs of the party.

The party created an Emergency Council on July 16, 1949, to operate as the highest policy-making organ during the period of Communist rebellion. The Council has a membership of 12, with President Chiang Kai-shek as chairman and Vice-President Li Tsung-jen as vice-chairman.

President Chiang, at a joint meeting of the Central Standing Committee and the Central Political Council held in Canton on July 18, 1949, proposed a resolution to effect fundamental reforms of the party. The resolution was unanimously adopted, and a preparatory committee was later appointed to work out the details for the reform.

On September 20, 1949, President Chiang issued a call to all members of the Kuomintang to support his reform program and to unite with all patriotic Chinese and freedom-loving peoples in the world in a war against totalitarianism.

"The Kuomintang, in leading the National Revolution of China," the President said, "struggled for the realization of an independent, politically democratic and economically sound new nation based upon Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles. But foreign imperialism appeared ever-ready to offset, by means of exploitation and encroachment, achievements attained in the National Revolution.

"Upon the victorious conclusion of China's war against Japan, the Communist Internationale intensified its fifth column activities in China through the armed forces of the Chinese Communist party led by Mao Tse-tung and Chu Teh. Their purpose was to destroy the fruits of the victory and to frustrate national unity and reconstruction.

"China's National Revolution may be divided into three periods. In the first period, the main objective was to overthrow the Manchu rule. It was a revolution for the people's right. The second period, covering the 34 years from the 1911 Revolution to the successful conclusion of the War of Resistance against Japan, had as its main objective the overthrow of the warlords and alien imperialism. The third period of the National Revolution began with the conclusion of the war against Japan. The main objective had been to oppose the Chinese Communists who serve as the fifth column of Soviet Imperialism. Revolution in this period became an ideological as well as a social struggle.

"Dr. Sun Yat-sen had led ten abortive uprisings against the Manchu rule before the final success in 1911," recalled President Chiang. "Even after the 1911 Revolution the Kuomintang withstood nine set-backs, prior to its present crisis, such as the attempt made by Wang Ching-wei to split the Kuomintang in 1927, the Japanese obstruction of the Northern Expedition in 1926, and the Japanese seizure of China's Northeastern provinces in 1931. Only through unshakable confidence and firm determination did the party survive one crisis after another and continue to help the nation toward independence.

"The crisis of today may be regarded as the tenth trial of the Kuomintang since the founding of the Republic," declared the President. "While the Chinese Communists may be superior to the warlords in the art of creating chaos and coercing the masses, their military strength could not be compared to that of the Japanese. The key to the whole question was whether the Kuomintang had a sound organization and a clear cut policy, and whether the party could be renovated with revolutionary spirit and through rigid discipline.

"To reform our party, its past mistakes and shortcomings, must be critically examined," the President said. "The party must eradicate defeatism and eliminate selfishness and bureaucracy. On the positive side, the Kuomintang must lay a firm social foundation and adopt a political platform suitable for the present.

"The Kuomintang must deal severe blows to the communists through social struggle and crush them through social reform. The present war is not a war for the change of a dynasty or the petty strifes among warlords; it is a struggle for the very life of the Chinese nation and civilization. The people and the nation must be saved from the tyranny of communism. China's national salvation hinges upon the party's rebirth. Only through a complete reform of the party policy, party activities and party morale, would there be any hope of survival in this last but gravest crisis in the 55 years of the Kuomintang's fighting history," President Chiang concluded.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

The existing *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* were adopted by the first National Congress of the party in January, 1924, and have since been revised four times. The last revision was made in May, 1945, at the Sixth National Congress. In their present form, the *General Regulations* comprise 15 chapters and 82 Articles.

(1) *Membership.* Anyone willing to accept the platform of the party, to carry out its resolutions, to observe its discipline, and to fulfill the duties and obligations imposed by the group, is eligible to become a member. A member has the right of suffrage and freedom of expression within the party.

At the end of 1947, the Kuomintang had 4,035,413 members.

(2) *Discipline.* All members must strictly observe the following rules of discipline: (a) to obey its regulations and principles, (b) to allow free discussion on any problem concerning the party, but to obey absolutely once a resolution has been adopted, (c) to keep party secrets, (d) to permit no attack on fellow members or party organs before outsiders, (e) to join no other political party, and (f) to organize no cliques or factions within the party.

Anyone violating the above rules is subject to (a) warning, (b) temporary suspension of membership privileges, (c) temporary suspension of membership, and (d) expulsion from the party, depending on the seriousness of the offense.

In case a whole party organization violates the rules of discipline, it receives one of the following punishments: (a) new registration of all party members and expulsion of undesirable elements, or (b) complete dissolution.

(3) *Tsungli and Tsungtsai.* Dr. Sun Yat-sen, founder of the Kuomintang, was *Tsungli* of the party. His orders for the propagation of *San Min Chu I* were subject to obedience by all party members. He presided over the sessions of the Party National Congress and the Central Executive Committee, and had the power to veto all resolutions passed by either body. Dr. Sun died in Peking (now Peiping) on March 12, 1925, but the provision in the *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* concerning his position as *Tsungli* is preserved as a tribute to his memory. At the extraordinary National Congress in 1938, Generalissimo Chiang was elected *Tsungtsai* of the party with all the powers previously exercised by *Tsungli.*

(A) *Dr. Sun Yat-sen.* Dr. Sun was born in 1866 in a small village in Hsiangshan, in Kwangtung Province, two years after the close of the Taiping Rebellion (1850-64). Hsiangshan has now been renamed Chungshan in memory of Dr. Sun, Chungshan being the Japanese name he used while in exile in Japan during the pre-Republican days. Dr. Sun's given name was Wen. Yat-sen was his courtesy name.

When 12 years old, he went to Honolulu to visit his brother and entered a boys' school there. He returned home in 1883. From 1884 to 1886, he studied at Queen's College, Hongkong, where he became a Christian. In 1887, he was among the first students to register at the new Medical School opened in Hongkong. Graduating from there in 1892, he practised medicine and surgery in Macao and later in Canton. But his professional career did not last long, for he soon became interested in other and more important things. He had already become the leader of the underground movement for the reform of China.

Dr. Sun's revolutionary ideas dated back to 1885, when China was defeated by France. He then resolved that the Manchu regime must go and a Republic be founded. From then on, he said, "the school was my place for propaganda, and medicine the medium through which I made my contacts with society." He founded the Hsing Chung Hui in Honolulu in 1894, after China's defeat in the war with Japan over Korea.

In 1918, Dr. Sun began to write a series of books under the general theme of national reconstruction. Though interrupted several times by subsequent political activities, he succeeded in completing the following works:

(a) *The Philosophy of Sun Wen (1919)*
(b) *The Preliminary Step to Democracy (1919)*
(c) *The International Development of China (1921)*
(d) *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction (1924)*
(see Important Koumintang Documents.)
(e) *Lectures on San Min Chu I (1924)*

(B) *President Chiang Kai-shek.* President Chiang Kai-shek is now the *Tsungtsai* or director-general of the Kuomintang. He was primarily responsible for the successful Northern Expedition against the warlords in 1926-28. He was the nation's leader in the war against the Japanese aggression and is now guiding the nation along the road to constitutional democracy.

President Chiang was born in Fenghwa, Chekiang Province, on October 31, 1887. During a brief visit to Japan in 1905, he met Dr. Sun and other revolutionary leaders. He studied in the Paoting Military Academy in North China and the Tokyo Military Academy. He returned to China at the outbreak of the Revolution in 1911 and joined the Revolutionary Army in Shanghai.

Following Dr. Sun to Canton, he was attached to the General Headquarters. In 1923, he was sent to Moscow to study the Soviet military organization. He returned to China the same year and was appointed principal of the Whampoa Military Academy in 1924. As Commander-in-Chief of the Revolutionary Army, he unified China as a result of the successful Northern Expedition in 1926-28.

Following establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1927, Generalissimo Chiang was elected its chairman. He resigned in 1931. The following year, he was appointed chairman of the National Military Council. He was elected *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang at the Extraordinary National Congress of the party in 1938 and was re-elected at the Sixth National Congress in 1945. In 1943, he succeeded the late Lin Sen as chairman of the National Government. In April, 1948, the first National Assembly elected him President of the Republic of China. He assumed office on May 20, 1948.

(4) *Weekly Memorial Service.* Since Dr. Sun Yat-sen's death, one hour every Monday morning is set aside for the weekly memorial service in all Party offices, government organs, and military posts in

China, presided over by the highest official thereof. The service includes the singing of China's national anthem, which is also the Kuomintang song, three bows before the national and party colors and Dr. Sun's portrait, the reading of Dr. Sun's will by the chairman and by the audience, the observance of three minutes' silence, the recitation of Dr. Sun's teachings or the renderings of work reports, and the recitation of the dicta for Party members. Since the introduction of constitutional government, only the Kuomintang organs observe this service.

(5) *Dicta for Kuomintang Members.* At the Fifth Party National Congress in November, 1935, the following 12 codes were adopted for observance by all Kuomintang members:—

(a) Loyalty and courage are the basis of patriotism.

(b) Filial devotion is the basis of family discipline.

(c) Goodwill and kindliness are the basis of harmony among fellow-beings.

(d) Faithfulness and uprightness are the basis of a useful career.

(e) Peaceableness is the basis of happy social relationships.

(f) Courtesy is the basis of proper administration.

(g) Obedience is the basis of a high sense of responsibility.

(h) Diligence and thrift are the basis of efficient service.

(i) Orderliness and cleanliness are the basis of sound health.

(j) Helpfulness is the basis of happiness.

(k) Knowledge is the basis of usefulness to mankind.

(l) Perseverance is the basis of achievement.

(6) *Organs of Authority.* The Kuomintang organization has five vertical grades: the National Congress which meets every two years, the provincial congress which meets every year, the *hsien* (county) congress which meets every six months, the *chu* (district) congress or *chu* members' general meeting which meets every two months, and the sub-*chu* members' general meeting which meets every two weeks. During recess their executive committees are organs of authority. Each organ of authority must take orders from the higher organ and carry out its resolutions.

Special administrative areas such as Mongolia and Tibet, have a party organization with the same status as a provincial party organ. Also party organizations in certain especially designated municipalities and administrative units and those abroad are given the same status as provincial organs and are directly responsible to the highest party organ of authority, the National Congress. Branch organs abroad are equivalent to the *hsien* party organ.

(7) *Term of Office.* A delegate to the National Congress serves only during the period when the congress is in session and until he has reported to his party organ. Members of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees of the National Congress hold office for two years. Members of the provincial executive and supervisory committees, the *hsien* executive and supervisory committees, and the district executive and supervisory committees, hold office for one year. Members of the sub-district executive committee hold office for six months.

(8) *National Congress.* The highest organ of the party is the National Congress. Between sessions the work of the National Congress is carried on by two committees: the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee.

The National Congress is vested with the following powers:

(a) To revise the *General Regulations* of the party;

(b) To accept and adopt reports of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees;

(c) To decide upon the political program and policies of the party, and to discuss party and political problems;

(d) To elect full and reserve members of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees.

The first National Congress was held in 1924, the second in 1926, the third in 1929, the fourth in 1931, and the fifth in 1935. An Extraordinary Party National Congress was convened in Hankow, in March-April, 1938, the year after the outbreak of the war with Japan. The sixth, because of the war, did not meet until May 5-21, 1945. Delegates to the sixth Congress, which was held in Chungking, numbered 600 plus the Central Executive Committee and Central Supervisory Committee members who were *ex-officio* representatives. The Congress re-elected President Chiang as *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang on May 17. It resolved, on May 14, to hold the National Assembly on November 12, 1945 (80th birthday anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen) which was, however, postponed to November, 1946. On May 19, it elected 222 Central Executive Committee members and 90 reserve members and 104 Central Supervisory committee members and 44 reserve members. The membership of the C.E.C. and the C.S.C. was increased considerably after the merging of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps into the party in September, 1947. In addition, the congress adopted a number of important resolutions including the new Political Program (see Important Kuomintang Documents).

(9) *Central Executive Committee.* The C.E.C. is charged with the following duties:

(a) To represent the party in external affairs,

(b) To carry out the resolutions of the National Congress,

(c) To organize and direct local party organs,

(d) To manage party finance.

During the *Period of Political Tutelage,* the Central Executive Committee had the power to decide on any matter regarding government affairs, subject only to revision of the Party National Congress. It elected the President of the National Government and the presidents and vice-presidents of the five yuan in the National Government.

The C.E.C. has the obligation to carry out the resolutions of the Central Supervisory Committee, but when it is deemed necessary, the C.E.C. may ask the C.S.C. to reconsider its resolutions.

The C.E.C. is now composed of 286 members and 104 reserve members. It elects from among its own members a standing committee of 55 to function during its recess. It meets once every six months, while its standing committee meets every week or every two weeks. The C.E.C. has a number of boards and committees as well as a secretariat.

Up to June, 1948, the Sixth C.E.C. had held four plenary sessions and one extraordinary session. The 1st plenary session was held on May 28-31, 1945; the 2nd, May 1-17, 1946; the 3rd, March 15-24, 1947; the 4th, September 9-13, 1947; and the extraordinary session, April 4, 1948. The 4th plenary session was held jointly with the Council of Secretaries of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, at which time the decision was made to amalgamate the Youth Corps into the party.

(10) *Central Supervisory Committee.* The C.S.C. is charged with the following duties:

(a) To decide upon penalties for lower organs or members violating party discipline,

(b) To examine the receipts and expenditures of the party,

(c) To examine and review party affairs throughout the country,

(d) To supervise the political activities of party members as to whether they are in conformity with the party's political program and policies.

The C.S.C. is now composed of 146 members and 52 reserve members. It has a standing committee of 19 elected from among its own members and a Secretariat. The C.S.C. meets once every six months.

(11) *Central Political Council.* For the direction of political affairs, the Central Executive Committee in 1924 organized a Central Political Council, which has since then been reorganized several times. As for the wartime administration the C.P.C. ceased to operate and its functions were taken over by the Supreme National Defense Council until 1947, when the C.P.C. was revived.

According to its organic law, the Central Political Council has from 19 to 25 members, nominated by the *Tsungtsai* and approved by the Central Executive Committee. It meets once every week or every two weeks. It has a secretariat and may appoint a number of sub-committees. The C.P.C. has the power to decide on:

(a) Plans for the enforcement of the party's political program and policies,

(b) Directives for handling important questions,

(c) Administrative reports of members of the party who are heads of the various yuan and ministries and commissions in the government,

(d) Choice of party members for political appointments in the government,

(e) Matters assigned by the Central Executive Committee or proposed by members.

As mentioned before, the Kuomintang established an Emergency Council in Canton in July, 1949, to serve as the highest policy-making organ of the party during the period of Communist Rebellion. This 12-man council temporarily took over the functions of the Central Political Council as a supreme policy-making organ in the party.

IMPORTANT KUOMINTANG DOCUMENTS

The following are the texts of five important documents of the Kuomintang. They are: (1) *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction.* (2) Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Will, (3) President Chiang Kai-shek's Address on the Kuomintang's 50th Anniversary, (4) Manifesto of the Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang, and (5) The Political Program of the Kuomintang.

FUNDAMENTALS OF NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

(Formulated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1924)

1. The National Government shall reconstruct the Republic of China on the basis of the revolutionary *San Min Chu I* (the Three People's Principles) and the Quintuple-Power Constitution.

2. The primary task of reconstruction is to better the people's livelihood. Consequently, concerning the four great necessities—food, clothing, shelter and means of travel—the Government should, in co-operation with the people, strive to develop agriculture to feed them; to develop the textile industry to meet their clothing demands; to work out a large-scale housing project to furnish them with better living quarters; to improve and construct roads and canals to facilitate their traveling.

3. Next in importance is the people's sovereignty. The Government should train and direct the people in their acquisition of political knowledge and ability, thereby enabling them to exercise the powers of election, recall, initiative, and referendum.

4. Nationalism follows next. The Government should help and guide the weak and small racial groups within its national boundaries toward self-determination and self-government. It should offer resistance to foreign aggression, and simultaneously, it should revise foreign treaties in order to restore our equality and independence among the nations.

5. The program of national reconstruction shall be divided into three periods: first, the military period; second, the period of political tutelage; third, the constitutional period.

6. In the military period, the whole administrative system shall be placed under military rule. The Government on the one hand should employ its armed force to eradicate all internal obstacles and, on the other, disseminate its doctrines to enlighten the people as well as to promote national unity.

7. As soon as a province is completely restored to order, the period of political tutelage will commence and the military period will come to an end.

8. In the period of political tutelage the Government should send persons, qualified through training and examination, to various *hsien* (counties) to assist the people in the preparation of self-government. A *hsien* may elect a magistrate for the execution of its administrative affairs and elect representatives for the deliberation and making of its laws in order to become a completely self-governed *hsien*. To qualify a census of the whole *hsien* must be properly taken, a survey of its land must be completed, its police and local defense forces satisfactorily maintained, and road-building and repairing within its boundaries successfully carried out. Also its people should have received training in the exercise of the four powers, fulfilled their duties as citizens, and pledged themselves to carry out the revolutionary principles.

9. Citizens in a completely self-governed *hsien* will have the power of election, the power of recall, the power of initiative, and the power of referendum.

10. Every *hsien*, at the commencement of self-government, shall first assess the value of private land in the whole *hsien*, which value is to be declared by the landowner. The local government shall tax private land on the basis of the value assessed, and at any time may buy it on the same basis. If after this assessment the land increases in value as a result of political advancement or social progress, such unearned increment should be shared by the people in the whole *hsien* and should not be kept by the landowners as private profits.

11. Annual receipts from land tax, unearned increment, products of public land, yields from mountains, forests, rivers and lakes, proceeds from mineral deposits and water power, all belong to the local government. These proceeds shall be used for the operation of local public enterprises of the people, for the care of the young and the aged, the poor and the sick, for famine relief, as well as to meet various public demands.

12. In the various *hsien*, natural resources and large-scale industrial and commercial enterprises, the opening and development of which lie beyond the means of these *hsien* and require external capital, should be started and developed with the help of the National Government. Net profits so realized shall be divided equally between the central and the local governments.

13. With regard to its obligation to the National Government, every *hsien* shall contribute a percentage of its annual revenue towards the central government's annual expenditure. Such percentage shall be determined each year by citizens' delegates, but it shall not be lower than 10 percent or more than 50 percent of the *hsien* revenue.

14. Every *hsien*, upon its adoption of self-government, may elect one delegate for the formation of a representative body to participate in political affairs of the National Government.

15. All candidates and appointed officials, whether belonging to the central or the local government, shall be persons found qualified in the examinations held by the National Government or adjudged qualified by the personnel registration organ of the National Government.

16. The constitutional period shall commence in a province when all the *hsien* of the province have attained complete self-government. The body of citizens' delegates may elect a governor to supervise self-government of the province. In matters involving national administration the governor shall be subject to the direction of the National Government.

17. In this period the authority of the central government and that of the provincial government shall be kept in equilibrium. Matters which by nature require uniform action on the part of the nation shall be assigned to the National Government; matters which by nature should be dealt with locally shall be assigned to the local government. There shall be no tendency either to the centralization or to the decentralization of power.

18. The *hsien* is the unit of local self-government. The province stands between the National Government and the *hsien* to bring about a closer relationship.

19. As soon as the constitutional period begins, the National Government should complete the formation of the five yuan to experiment on a quintuple-power government. The five yuan are named in the following order: The Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan, and the Control Yuan.

20. The Executive Yuan tentatively shall have the following ministries: (1) The Ministry of Interior; (2) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs; (3) The Ministry of Military Affairs; (4) The Ministry of Finance; (5) The Ministry of Agriculture and Mining; (6) The Ministry of Industry and Commerce; (7) The Ministry of Education; (8) The Ministry of Communications.

21. Before the promulgation of a Constitution, the presidents of the five Yuan shall be appointed or removed and directed by the President of the National Government.

22. The draft of the Constitution should be prepared by the Legislative Yuan in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* and the achievements in the period of political tutelage and the constitutional period. It should, from time to time, be made public to the people in order to facilitate its adoption when the proper time comes.

23. When more than one-half of the provinces have reached the constitutional period, that is when they have completely adopted local self-government, the National Assembly shall be convened to decide on and promulgate the Constitution.

24. After the promulgation of the Constitution the governing power of the National Government shall be returned to the National Assembly for execution. That is, the National Assembly shall exercise the powers of election and recall in regard to officials of the central government, as well as the powers of initiative and referendum in regard to the laws of the central government.

25. The day of the promulgation of the Constitution marks the culmination of constitutional government. All citizens of the nation shall, in accordance with the Constitution, hold a general election. The National Government shall be dissolved within three months after the completion of the election and shall be succeeded by the now popularly-elected government. Whereupon the great task of national reconstruction will be regarded as accomplished.

DR. SUN YAT-SEN'S WILL

"For forty years I have devoted myself to the cause of the people's revolution with but one end in view, the elevation of China to a position of freedom and equality in the family of nations. My experiences during these forty years have firmly convinced me that to attain this goal we must bring about a thorough awakening of our own people and ally ourselves in a common struggle with those peoples of the world who treat us on the basis of equality.

"The work of the Revolution is not yet accomplished. Let all our comrades follow my *Plans for National Reconstruction, Fundamentals of National Reconstruction, Three People's Principles,* and the Manifesto issued by the First National Congress of our Party, and strive on earnestly for their consummation. Above all, our recent declarations in favor of the convocation of a national convention and the abolition of unequal treaties should be carried into effect with the least possible delay. This is my heartfelt charge to you.—(Signed) SUN WEN, March 11, 1925. Written on February 20, 1925."

President Chiang Kai-shek's Address to the Party and Nation on the Occasion of the 50th Anniversary of the Kuomintang November 12, 1944

The Father of our Republic, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, organized in 1894 the *Hsing Chung Hui* (Regenerate China Society), the forerunner of the Kuomintang, and launched the revolutionary movement for national salvation. This year marks the 50th anniversary of the organization of the Kuomintang.

Today is also the birthday anniversary of Dr. Sun. His birth marked the birth of a savior to China and brought good tidings to humanity. His organization of a political party for revolution heralded a new life for China. It restored to us self-confidence; it heightened our hope for the regeneration of our country and made us conscious of the need for progress in keeping with that of the modern world.

In promoting the revolution, Dr. Sun wished to revive our nation and to win national freedom and independence. The earlier documents of the Kuomintang made it clear that the foundation of the revolution rests with the people. The unwavering belief of Dr. Sun had always been that the interest of the country takes precedence over that of the party. There would be no party, if ever the party should be separated from the people. After the establishment of the Republic, the Kuomintang has exerted its utmost efforts to safeguard the Republic. The party's object is to discharge its special duties, not to seek special privileges.

It was Dr. Sun who formulated the Three People's Principles, the highest guiding principles of the Republic. The Principle of Nationalism is directed toward securing the liberation of the Chinese nation and the equality of all racial groups within the nation. The Principle of People's Rights aims at the people's realization of their direct political rights in addition to their indirect rights. The Principle of People's Livelihood aims at the equalization of land ownership and the restriction of capitalistic monopoly.

To make it more specific, the Principle of Nationalism has as its objective the saving of China from destruction and the bringing about of her national independence. The Principle of People's Right aims at the establishment of a nation whose sovereign power rests entirely with the people; and the Principle of People's Livelihood is to prevent a capitalistic monopoly and class struggle and to give to the people an equal opportunity in life. These are what the Chinese people have been striving for in the last 50 years.

At the very beginning, Dr. Sun decided that the national revolution was an enterprise for the whole nation to undertake. From the days of the *Hsing Chung Hui* to the present time, the Kuomintang has been reorganized six times. In each reorganization, the party gathered together more revolutionary patriots. Whatever progress China has made during the past 50 years should be attributed largely to the efforts and sacrifices made by our comrades.

Revolution and national salvation are not a wrangle over privileges and positions, but they mean the shouldering of duties and responsibilities. Personal interests must not be placed before the supreme interest of the country. We must not be afraid of sacrifices; we must endure all criticisms and sufferings. We must not in any way neglect our duties. Only thus can we live up to the expectations of Dr. Sun and the martyrs who have gone before us.

Particularly at this moment, we should redouble our effort to win the war. Every one of us must exert his utmost to carry on the struggle. The greatest enemy to our revolution and to our national reconstruction is Japan. In his *International Development of China,* published in 1921, Dr. Sun pointed out that "the militaristic policy of Japan is to swallow China." He predicted that "the next aggression from Japan will be resolutely resisted by the Chinese people. Japan will not be able to dominate China at any time or in any place." By "organize for war," he meant the aggression block of the Fascist nations, and by "organize for peace," he meant the anti-aggression Allies who would fight for the preservation of peace. We have fought with determination for more than seven years. Our common victory in this anti-aggression war is in sight. We believe that after this war, there will emerge an effective guarantee for international peace and security, and that means will be found for economic cooperation and mutual help among the nations. But at this moment, when we have not yet recovered our lost territories, and when the enemy is still running rampant, the nation should continue to fight Japan.

Our immediate concern is the defeat of the enemy. The people of the Republic of China and the loyal revolutionists must jointly and with a single purpose overcome the greatest enemy of our revolution and of our national reconstruction, and achieve the object the Father of the Republic set forth 50 years ago.

Manifesto of the Sixth National Congress (Issued on May 21, 1945)

Significantly, the Sixth Party National Congress of the Kuomintang is held in this eighth year of our war when the final victory is in sight and constitutionalism is soon to materialize and when the entire world is emerging from chaos and darkness.

Recalling the past and dwelling on the present, we realize even more fully that our responsibilities and hardships are without parallel. For the information of all our party members and the entire nation, a review of the deliberations and results achieved in the congress is set forth here.

First, China's most urgent task today is to strengthen her armed forces for the decisive battles and the destruction of the enemy. In eight years of bitter struggle, the enemy has occupied large sections of our country and millions of our gallant soldiers have fallen in battle while countless numbers of our men and women have suffered untold cruelties and violent death. Only the recovery of all our lost territories and the complete destruction of Japanese imperialism will redeem in part our enormous sacrifices. Only by the liberation of our long lost people in the Northeastern Provinces, the return of Formosa to its motherland, and the restoration of independence to Korea which she had enjoyed for thousands of years, and the total extermination of the seeds of Japanese aggression may we consider the victory completely won.

Japan has now lost her disreputable partners. The anti-aggression nations will soon transfer their forces to the Far East. Japan, in desperation, is certain to make her last stand on the Chinese mainland. The decisive battles ahead are, therefore, bound to be the hardest and severest in the eight years. It is necessary that the entire nation should with one heart and purpose build up our striking power, thoroughly mobilize our resources, and with determination overcome all unpredictable dangers and hardships.

Second, our allies and friends, especially the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R., have bestowed upon us great sympathy in our long fight for justice. They also supplied us with arms, materials, and economic aid. The Chinese Army and people are genuinely grateful for such friendship and will always remember it. While the enemy is yet to be crushed, we will prosecute the war vigorously with everything at our command and faithfully adhere to the United Nations and the Four-Power Declarations until victory is won and support wholeheartedly the establishment of an international security organization. Japan remains as the only obstacle to China's revolutionary national reconstruction and to world peace. After clearing this last obstacle, China will, in accordance with her traditional policy, strengthen friendly relations with her allies. We shall welcome financial and technical cooperation from all nations to carry out our industrial program. Reconstruction in China will be promoted on the principles of mutual benefit and of hastening world prosperity.

Third, the purpose of our Principle of Nationalism is to secure independence for China and equality for all the racial groups within the country. In order to insure the attainment of this dual object, this congress reiterates the declaration adopted by the First National Congress of the Kuomintang in 1924 that a free and united Republic of China shall be established after the successful conclusion of the revolution. We shall strive with all our power to free all frontier racial groups from the oppression they suffer as a result of Japanese invasion. We shall actively aid the economic and cultural development of the frontier racial groups, respect their languages, religions, and customs and promote local self-government. A high degree of autonomy will be granted to Outer Mongolia and Tibet. The full realization of the Principle of Nationalism will mean for our nation enduring peace and unity.

Fourth, the Principle of People's Rights as advocated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen aims at the attainment of a complete and progressive democracy. Ever since the inception of the Kuomintang and its predecessors as a political party we have labored ceaselessly for democracy and constitutionalism. This is the time to hasten our great task of national reconstruction. The *Tsungtsai* of our Party has proposed, and the Congress has adopted, the resolution that the National Assembly shall be convened on November 12 of this year to adopt and promulgate a constitution. Before the assembly meets we shall with absolute sincerity seek the collaboration of all the truly patriotic leaders of the nation towards the early inauguration of constitutionalism. The coming six months may be described as the eve of constitutionalism in China. It coincides with the period when the most difficult

battles against the enemy will be fought. It is the government's as well as the people's duty to see to it that wartime public opinion is fostered, freedom within law is respected and the foundation for self-government is soundly developed. We are convinced that the Chinese people, fully cognizant of their hard-won independence and freedom, will not permit any force to set Chinese history back thirty years, or jeopardize the foundation of the Republic laid by our martyrs, thereby plunging the nation once more into chaos. Our attitude is plain and straightforward. Our spirit is sincere and just. We shall exert our utmost to establish a sound foundation for constitutionalism and insure the future welfare of the nation.

Fifth, Dr. Sun taught that in national reconstruction the question of the people's livelihood should receive first attention. The congress, after examining our past records, regrets that due to numerous obstacles, we have not carried out the policies of equalization of land and restriction of private capital.

In this opening address to the congress, the *Tsungtsai* said that we should from now on pay special attention to carrying out, without reserve, the Principle of People's Livelihood. All measures, including the prevention of monopoly by capitalists, the elimination of hindrances to production, the prevention of land aggrandizement, the promotion of the policy of farmers owning the land they till, the improvement of the living standards of the front line soldiers, the safeguarding of the livelihood of the farmers and laborers, and of the government and school employees, and affording youths a chance of receiving education and security jobs, shall be faithfully carried out.

The fundamental objective of the Principle of People's Livelihood is to increase the productive capacity and to improve the general standards of living. We shall from now on adhere to the directions provided in the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* to meet the people's needs for food, clothing, shelter, and communications and to accept foreign financial and technical assistance in order to achieve a balanced development of industry and agriculture. We shall, on the one hand, encourage the people to engage in private enterprises under the general plan of national economic reconstruction, and, on the other hand, develop state capital to engage in large-scale economic enterprises, especially the development of communications and motive power. The fruits of such economic reconstruction and development of enterprises shall be enjoyed by the entire people.

During the session of the Congress, numerous messages of encouragement and congratulation from our friends abroad were received. This is unprecedented in the history of the Kuomintang. It is an honor conferred on us as a result of the concerted efforts of our army and people in the struggle against aggression.

We believe that the closer we come to the successful conclusion of our revolution, the more responsibility we shall shoulder. It is our fervent hope that the leaders of the nation will take to heart the crisis the country faces and the suffering our people endure and work with one heart and the utmost sincerity to drive out the enemy and to secure for our nation permanent peace.

Political Program
(Adopted on May 18, 1945)

The 6th National Congress of the Kuomintang adopted on May 18, 1945, a revised *Political Program* as proposed by President Chiang Kai-shek, *Tsungtsai* of the party. The first *Political Program* of the Kuomintang was adopted by the First Party National Congress in January, 1924. The revised program reads:

Accepting the Three People's Principles as the highest guiding policy, the Kuomintang in its 50 years of revolutionary history overthrew the Manchu regime, swept away warlordism, and led in the war of resistance and national reconstruction. The mission of the Kuomintang can be clearly seen from the *Political Program* adopted by the First Party National Congress and the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* adopted by the Extraordinary Party National Congress. The achievements of the Kuomintang are also common knowledge.

The Kuomintang shall redouble its efforts for the early achievement of final victory, constitutionalism, and improvement of the people's livelihood. To accomplish this, the following political program and policies are adopted and it is urged that all fellow party members and the entire nation unite to attain the objective.

I. Pertaining to Nationalism

The Principle of Nationalism seeks to attain independence for China and equality for all the racial groups within the country. In the present phase, the urgent task is to strive for early victory, to strengthen the foundation of the nation, to assist in the development of the frontier racial groups so as to achieve an independent, free, and united nation, and to strengthen international cooperation to enable China to bear her proper responsibility in the promotion of international peace. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. The mobilization of our entire national strength for the war against Japan; to beat Japan to unconditional surrender, to disarm the enemy militarily and economically, and to eliminate his ideology of aggression.

2. The realization of the Cairo declaration: helping China attain her territorial, sovereign, and administrative integrity, and assisting Korea to win her independence.

3. Collaboration with the allied nations to establish an international security organization to secure permanent world peace.

4. The conclusion of mutual aid pacts with the different allied nations for permanent friendly relations, particularly in the economic and cultural fields for world security and prosperity.

5. The conclusion of commercial treaties of equality and reciprocity with other nations and working toward the betterment of conditions for overseas Chinese.

6. Granting a high degree of local autonomy to Mongolia and Tibet, and assisting the frontier racial groups attain a balanced economy and cultural development as a part of the foundation of a free and united Chinese Republic.

7. The protection and strengthening of the unity of the nation and the strict enforcement of government laws and regulations to prevent any action detrimental to unity in the fields of foreign, military, financial, communications, and currency affairs of the nation.

8. Positive steps to augment the equipment of the national army, reorientation of military education, improvement of conscription administration, improvement of the livelihood of officers and men, and betterment of the personnel and commissariat system to build up a modern army.

9. Universal promotion of the people's health and the expansion of sanitary and health enterprises to improve national health.

10. The encouragement of scientific research, improvement of the policy of sending students to study abroad, and increase the facilities for academic research for cultural independence and development.

II. Pertaining to People's Rights

The Principle of People's Right seeks to promote indirect as well as direct sovereign rights. At the present stage of development it aims at the early establishment of a constitutional government, consummation of local self-government, popularization of universal education and protection of women so that the entire people can enjoy the rights, and the recreation of a civil service system to guarantee administrative independence and to safeguard legal rights of the people. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. The convocation of the National Assembly to adopt a Five-Power Constitution and establish a constitutional government.

2. The protection of the people's freedom of speech, press, assembly, organization, religion, and academic research.

3. The promotion of local autonomous activities in accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's "Measures for the Initiation of Local Autonomy," to hasten the establishment of representative organs and to elect within a specific period of time magistrates and mayors in order to consummate local self-government.

4. The rendering of assistance to local autonomous activities and public utilities.

5. The strict enforcement of laws, severe punishment for corruption, improvement of administrative efficiency, establishment of clean government, and improvement of the treatment of public functionaries and schools teachers and their protection through the institution of health insurance, retirement, and pension systems.

6. The rationalization of the administrative machinery, establishment of a sound civil service system, fixing the terms of offices of political officials of various ranks, and the promotion of personnel on a fair and equitable basis.

7. The realization of true equality between men and women economically, socially, politically, and educationally.

8. The popularization of mass education within a designated period and the promotion of supplementary education for adults to eliminate illiteracy.

9. Equal opportunity for all institutes of education, and free tuition in middle schools and colleges for needy students with high scholastic standing and honorably discharged members of the Youth Army.

10. The safeguarding of judicial unity and independence, simplification of legal procedure, institution of prison reforms, reformation of prisoners, and protection for the livelihood of prisoners who have served their terms.

III. Pertaining to People's Livelihood

The Principle of People's Livelihood has two very important policies, the equalization of land and the restriction of private capital. The Government shall be responsible for meeting the people's needs for food, clothing, shelter, and transportation. It shall assist them to develop agriculture to supply food and the textile industries for their clothing; to launch large-scale housing projects for shelter, and to improve roads and waterways to provide them transportation. Present efforts should be concentrated on the increase of war production, the planning of postwar economic reconstruction, the assistance of private enterprises, the encouragement of foreign capital and technical cooperation, the protection of the interests of farmers and workers, the maintenance of a balance between urban and rural development, the planning of demobilization of servicemen and wounded veterans for absorption into peacetime work so as to safeguard their social security and elevate the people's standard of living. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. In accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's plan of industrial development, foreign capital and technical assistance should be sought in the task of postwar economic reconstruction. To implement this plan, priority should be accorded to the development of communication, electric power, and a balanced development of agriculture and industry. All enterprises which are monopolistic in nature and beyond the reach of private capital should be undertaken by the State or local authorities. All others should be undertaken by private individuals.

2. The stabilization of the exchange rate and the value of the Chinese dollar through international cooperation and improvement in the financial policy. International trade should be developed to further China's industrialization and the prosperity of the world.

3. The improvement of the taxation system in order to simplify the process of collection. Direct taxes should be levied on a progressive scale and the amount of inheritance be duly restricted.

4. All land in urban areas should be taken over by the State. With the exception of public land, all farm land should be distributed to the farmers in the quickest possible time. All farm land not cultivated by the owner should be gradually bought by the State with land bonds.

5. The development of farmers' organizations to protect farmers' interests and to improve their livelihood. The system of collective farms should be enforced and the industrialization of Chinese agriculture should be promoted.

6. The development of labor organizations, improvement of labor conditions, promotion of cooperation between labor and capital, improvement of working efficiency and the protection of women and child laborers.

7. Universal promotion of social insurance and welfare activities, particularly unemployment insurance and the care of children.

8. Special treatment for families of military personnel, planning of postwar demobilization and re-employment, pensions to families of fallen soldiers, protection of wounded veterans.

9. Prompt relief for people in war areas and territories recovered by our forces.

10. Registration of the property of public functionaries and those in the employment of public enterprises. No government official should be allowed to engage in any business enterprises.

Important Officials of the Kuomintang

(June 1949)

Tsungtsai: Chiang Kai-shek

Central Executive Committee

Members of the Standing Committee:

(Those marked with an asterisk were expelled from the Kuomintang in 1949)

Ting Wei-fen	T. V. Soong	Li Wen-ya
Chu Chi-ching	Pan Kung-chan	Chen Yen-fen
Mai Ssu Wu Teh	Li Chen*	Tang Ju-yen
Wu Te-chen	Tuan Hsi-peng (deceased)	Huang Yu-jen
Chang Chun	Ho Hao-jo	Chiang Ching-kuo
Soong Ching-ling*	Chang Chi-yun	Chu Cheng
Tien Kun-shan	Lai Lien	Li Wen-fan

Central Executive Committee

Members of the Standing Committee (*continued*)

Tsou Lu	Liu Chien-chun	Chien Ta-chun
Li Tsung-huang	Yuan Shou-chien	Fan Yu-sui
Chang Chih-chung*	Kang Tse (deceased)	Cheng Cheng
Chu Chia-hua	Chao Chung-yung	Chang Li-sheng
Sun Fo	Yu Yu-jen	Ho Chung-han
Pai Chung-hsi	Wu Chung-hsin	Wang Chi-chiang
Hsiao Tung-tze	Ma Chao-chun	Huang Shao-ku
Liang Han-chao	Tai Chuan-hsien (deceased)	Hsiao Cheng
Chang Tao-fan	Chen Pu-lei (deceased)	Liu Ke-shu
Chen Li-fu	Pai Yun-ti	Teng Wen-yi
Ku Cheng-kang	Chen Kuo-fu	Cheng Ssu-yuan
Ho Lien-kuei		

Central Supervisory Committee

Members of the Standing Committee:

Wu Ching-heng	Wang Chung-hui	Shao Li-tze*
Liu Wen-tao	Yao Ta-hai	Wang Ping-chun
Shao Hua	Chang Chih-pen	Chang Mo-chun
Li Yung-hsin	Lu Tang-ping	Chu Chin-nung
Li Man-kwei	Pai Yu	Liu Tsan-chou
Chu Kuang-chien	Cheng Tien-fang	Li Shih-chun

Officers of Central Executive Committee:

Secretary-General: Cheng Yen-fen
Director, Board of Organization: Ku Cheng-ting
Director, Board of Information: Cheng Tieng-fang
Director, Board of Overseas Affairs: Chen Ching-yun
Director, Board of Farmers and Labor Movement: Ma Chao-chun
Chairman, Training Committee: Tuan Hsi-peng (deceased)
Chairman, Party Affairs Committee: Cheng Yen-fen
Chairman, Pension Committee: Ting Wei-fen
Chairman, Party History Compilation and Editing Committee: Hsu Jen-ju (acting)
Chairman, Revolutionary Achievements Committee: Wu Ching-heng
Chairman, Financial Affairs Committee: Chen Kuo-fu
Chairman, Cultural Movement Committee: Chang Tao-fan
Chairman, Women's Movement Committee: Liu Heng-ching (Miss)
Chairman, Personnel Committee: Cheng Yen-fen
Chairman, Ideology Research Committee: Liang Han-chao

Central Political Council

Chiang Kai-shek, Chairman *ex-officio*

Members:

Chang Jen-chieh	Tseng Yang-pu	Chu Shao-liang
Yen Hsi-shan	Chi Shih-ying	Li Ching-chai
H. H. Kung	Yuan Shou-chien	Kan Nai-kuang
Li Tsung-jen	Lu Chung-lin	Peng Hsueh-pei (deceased)
Hsu Yung-chang	Li Yu-ying	Fang Chih
Chen Chi-tang	Hsiung Ke-wu	Ku Cheng-ting
Hsu Kan	Cheng Chien*	Cheng Yen-fen
Yu Ching-tang	Ho Ying-chin	

Emergency Council

Chairman: Chiang Kai-shek
Vice-chairman: Li Tsung-jen

Members:

Sun fo	Chang Chun	Wu Chung-hsin
Yu Yu-jen	Chu Chia-hua	Wu Te-chen
Yen Hsi-shan	Chu Cheng	Chen Li-fu
	Ho Ying-chin	

Secretary-General: Hung Lan-yu

THE COMMUNIST PARTY

Early History

The Communist organization in China dates from the formation of the Institute of Marxism by Chen Tu-hsiu in Shanghai in 1920. Chen, a young professor at the National Peking University, joined the Third International while visiting in Moscow in 1921. Upon his return to China he convened the First National Congress of the Chinese Communist Party in Shanghai on July 1, 1921. Mao Tse-tung was among those present.

Meanwhile, Chinese students in Europe, including Chou En-lai, organized a Chinese Communist Youth Movement in Paris in 1920. This later became the Chinese Communist headquarters in France.

At the First National Congress, Chen was elected Chairman of the party. Its membership then totalled only 100. This was increased to 300 by 1922, when the Second National Congress was held in Canton. Chen remained in charge of the party, and later became its general secretary, then the most influential post in the Communist party. The most important resolution adopted at the Second Congress was that the Chinese Communist party should join the Third International and serve as the latter's China branch.

Relations between the Communists and the Kuomintang began in this period. Upon order from the Third International, the Chinese Communist party resolved to join the Kuomintang, as decided in August, 1922. In December, the same year, A. Joffe, Special Soviet Envoy to China, arrived in Shanghai. Li Ta-chao, a young professor at National Peking University and a Communist, was the first one to join the Kuomintang.

A large number of Soviet advisors arrived in Canton in 1923, including Michael Borodin and Marshal Blucher (then known in China as General Galens) who served as political and military advisers respectively to Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

Members of the Communist party holding important posts in the Kuomintang in 1924 included Tan Ping-shan who became head of the Kuomintang Board of Organization, and Lin Tsu-han who became director of the Kuomintang Board of Farmers. Others held influential positions in practically all departments of the Kuomintang and later in the National Government. Ten leading Communists, including Mao Tse-tung and Li Ta-chao, were on the Central Executive and Supervisory Committees of the Kuomintang. Their main objective was to destroy the Kuomintang from within.

By 1925, when the Communist party held its Fourth National Congress, membership had increased to 1,500, and was again doubled after the general strike in Shanghai in May, 1925. Their main objective remained unchanged, to destroy the Kuomintang and to expand the Communist party. They were opposed to the Northern Expedition against the warlords for fear that success would make the Kuomintang too strong for the Communists.

As subversive activities increased in intensity, the Kuomintang in 1927 took steps to purge its rank and file of all communists. In July, the same year, the communists decided on a program of armed insurrection which has continued up to the present with the exception of the armed truce during the war years. (For further details on early Kuomintang-Communist relations, see *The Communist Issue.*)

Armed Rebellion

After the 1927 purge, internal struggle started among the communists themselves. Chu Teh, Li Li-san, Chou En-lai, Ho Lung, Yeh Ting, and others organized a revolutionary committee in Kiangsi on August 1, 1927, and started a series of abortive uprisings at Changsha, Nanchang, Canton and other places. Their slogans then included: "enforce land revolution," "build up rural administration," "dispossess owners with over 50 mow of land" and "protect the interests of the farmers and workers."

Chen Tu-hsiu called a conference at Kuling on August 7, 1927, and resigned as General Secretary of the Communist party after being attacked by Mao Tse-tung and Chu Chiu-po, both being members of the Central Committee. Chu, who advocated armed uprisings, became the center of attack after the failure of these revolts and had to step down from his position in the Communist party after the Sixth National Congress held in August, 1928, in Moscow.

In 1929 Chen Tu-hsiu was expelled from the Communist party because of his opposition to the party's support of Russia during the Sino-Soviet dispute over the Chinese Eastern Railway in the northeast (Manchuria). The real reason for Chen's expulsion was his association in Moscow with some Chinese student Trotsky sympathizers in August, 1928. Chen finally became leader of Trotsky-ites in China.

Shortly afterwards, Li Li-san, who directed the Communist political activities in the Northeast after the end of the war, became the center of power in the Communist party. In 1930, when Hsiang Chung-fa was the party's general secretary, Li tried to seize power in the party, regarding himself as the Lenin of China. His program was to pave the way to world revolution by inducing the U.S.S.R. to invade China's northeast, declare war on Japan and start a world war. He proposed Hankow as the site for a general strike and for the establishment of a Soviet government in China. His program was rejected by the party's Central Committee. During this period, Chen Shao-yu (alias Wang Ming) and his internationalist clique were the moving spirits in the Chinese Communist party. He became its general secretary in 1931 after the death of Hsiang Chung-fa.

"The Soviet Government"

Upon orders from the Third International, the "Soviet Republic of China" was established in Juikin, Kiangsi province, in November, 1931, with Mao Tse-tung as chairman. At that time, the Chinese Communist Armies were concentrated in Central China. Chu Teh was their commander-in-chief.

Mao has been the real boss in the Chinese Communist party since the early 1920's. After he failed in the Hunan uprisings in 1927, he massed his armed groups at Chingkangshan (mountain) in Ningkang on the Hunan-Kiangsi border and, after absorbing some local bands, created the so-called "First Farmers and Workers Revolutionary Army." Chu, who is the rebels' present commander-in-chief, later joined Mao there.

The National Government was compelled to seek the suppression of the communists by military force. After several years of hostilities, Government forces succeeded in tightening the ring around Juikin. Faced by total destruction in November, 1935, the communists, led by Mao, Chu and Chou En-lai, started on their "Long March" across several provinces, finally settling in a small area around Yenan, in the northwest.

From then till 1937, the communists switched slogans to fit their moods and schemes. As Japan's aggressive activities in north China became more and more unbearable for the Chinese people as a whole, the communists changed their early slogan of: "oppose Chiang Kai-shek and resist Japan" to: "unite with Chiang Kai-shek and resist Japan." This was done in accordance with directives from the Third International.

The "Chinese Soviet Government" was abolished in 1937, shortly after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, and the Communist Armies were reorganized into the Eighth Route Army (later the 18th Group Army) with Chu Teh and Peng Teh-huai as commander-in-chief and deputy commander-in-chief respectively. The communists appealed to the National Government for such measures as early as May, 1936. They then agreed to abolish the Soviet system, reorganize their troops into the National Army, stop class struggle, discontinue the policy of land confiscation, and to follow Dr. Sun Yat-sen's *Three People's Principles.*

On October 1, 1949, the communists established the "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China" in Peiping, with Mao Tse-tung as chairman. The next day the Soviet Union granted the puppet government official recognition, followed by several countries in Eastern Europe. (For details of communist activities during the war and since the end of the war, see *The Communist Issue.*)

Present Organization

In the Chinese Communist party today the highest organ of authority is the National Congress, under which is the Central Committee composed of 44 members and 33 reserve members. Under the C.C. are the various grades of local units and the central departments in charge of organization, publicity, training, youth, and farmers' and workers movement.

The most powerful organ in the Central Committee under the Central Committee is the Politburo, of which Mao is the chairman. The Politburo stations officers in areas under Red domination and in all Red Army units. It also controls the secret service and the Communist youth movement.

Central Committee (1948)

Members:

Mao Tse-tung	Wang Jo-fei (deceased)	Tung Tai-yuan
Jen Pi-Shih	Chen Yi	Hsu Teh-li
Tung Pi-wu	Cheng Wei-san	Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming)
Kwan Shang-yin	Teng Hsiao-ping	Chu Teh
Li Fu-chun	Yeh Chien-ying	Lin Tsu-han
Lo Yung-huan	Teng Tze-hui	

Central Committee members (continued)

Chen Yun
Chen Tan-chiu
Jao Shu-shih
Kang Sheng
Chang Yun-yi
Chou En-lai
Chang Wen-tien
Lu Ting-yi
Nieh Yung-chen
Wu Yu-chang
Chang Ting-chang
Tan Chen-ling
Chin Pang-hsien (deceased)
Liu Shao-chi
Lin Piao
Hsu Shang-chien
Kao Kang
Li Li-san
Peng Chen
Ho Lung
Liu Po-cheng
Tsai Chang (Miss)
Tseng Sheng
Peng Teh-huai
Lin Feng
Li Hsien-nien
Po Yi-po

Reserve Members

Liao Cheng-chih
Chen Po-yuan
Wang Shou-tao
Teng Yin-chao
Liu Hsiao
Cheng Tze-hua
Shu Yu
Sung Jen-chun
Chao Cheng-sheng
Wang Wei-chou
Ku Ta-cheng
Chen Yu
Liu Tze-chiu
Lu Cheng-chao
Chen Keng
Hsi Chung-hsun
Liu Lan-tao
Wang Chia-hsiang
Huang Ke-cheng
Li Yu
Chen Shao-ming
Tan Cheng
Liu Chang-sheng
Wang Chen
Chang Chi-chun
Yun Tse (Ulan Hu; Tumut)
Wan Yi
Tseng Ching-ping
Ma Ming-fang
Chang Shun
Lo Jui-ching
Wang Tsung-wu
Hsiao Ching-kuang

The Politburo (1948)

Chairman: Mao Tse-tung
Secretary: Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming)

Members:

Chou En-lai, Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming), Chin Pang-hsien (deceased), Ho Chang-kung, Liu Shao-chi, Chang Wen-tien

THE DEMOCRATIC LEAGUE

A Brief History

In 1939 a number of People's Political Council members formed the "Association of National Unification and Reconstruction" in Chungking. Mostly members of minority parties and groups, they regard themselves as a bridge between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party.

In June, 1942, when the association reorganized as the "Federation of Democratic Political Parties and Associations," it announced its intention "to mediate the Kuomintang - Communist dispute and to promote constitutional government." Participants in the federation were the Young China party, the National Socialist (later Democratic Socialist) party, the Third Party, the National Salvation Association, the Rural Reconstruction Group, the National Association of Vocational Education, and the Northeast Salvation Association, as well as independents.

The Federation was reorganized as the "Democratic League" in Chungking on October 20, 1944. The League proposed the immediate formation of a coalition government as a preliminary step toward a constitutional government.

At the inaugural session the League elected a Central Executive Committee of 33 members and a Standing Committee of 13 members.

Standing Committee:

Li Huang (Young China)
Tseng Chi (Young China)
Tso Shun-sheng (Young China)
Tung Shih-chin (Agriculturist, later Chinese Farmers')
Carsun Chang (Democratic Socialist)
Lo Lung-chi (Democratic Socialist)
Chang Po-chun (Third Party)
Shen Chun-ju (National Salvation)
Chang Shen-fu (National Salvation)
Huang Yen-pei (Vocational Education)
Liang Shu-ming (Rural Reconstruction)
Chang Lan (Independent)
Chou Ching-wen (Young China)

Central Executive Commitee:

Chairman: Chang Lan
General Secretary: Tso Shun-sheng
Committee chairmen:
Organization: Chang Po-chun
Publicity: Tso Shun-sheng
Financial Affairs: Chang Lan

Cultural: Chang Shen-fu
Domestic Relations: Lian Shu-ming
Foreign Relations: Carsun Chang

The Young China party then held key positions in the League. Soon afterwards there was a split in the organization. As a result, the Young China party withdrew in 1944. Tung Shih-chin also withdrew because his proposals on agriculture were not adopted by the League's Extraordinary National Congress held in October, 1945.

During the war the League's centers of activities were Chungking, Chengtu and Kunming. After the war, its headquarters were moved to Shanghai. Its important officials then were:

Chairman: Chang Lan
Director, Secretariat: Liang Shu-ming
Committee Chairman:
Organization: Chang Po-chun
Publicity: Lo Lung-chi
Cultural: Chang Shen-fu
Financial Affairs: Chang Lan
Industrial and Commercial Affairs: Huang Yen-pei
Youth Movement: Shen Chun-ju
Women's Movement: Liu Ching-yang
Mass Movement: Tao Hsing-chih (deceased)
Overseas Affairs: Cheng Chen-wen
Domestic Relations: Liang Shu-ming
Foreign Relations: Carsun Chang

In 1946 the Nationalist Socialist group was renamed the Democratic Socialist party, after its merger with the Democratic Constitutional party. Shortly afterwards, it decided to take part in the National Assembly convened by the National Government. This resulted in its expulsion from the Democratic League.

The Democratic League Outlawed

As the League's collusion with the Chinese Communist party became more obvious, the National Government outlawed it on October 27, 1947. The withdrawal of the Young China party in 1944, as a result of communist intrigue, had already placed communist sympathizers in a dominant position in the League. After the expulsion of the Democratic Socialists, control of the League passed completely into the hands of fellow travellers and incognito communists.

During and after the Political Consultation Conference held in Chungking in January, 1946, the Democratic League sided with the Chinese Communist party practically on all issues. When the National Assembly was in session in November - December, 1946, it joined the communists in boycotting the assembly, and later refused to recognize the constitution adopted by the assembly. By then, its participation in the communist rebellion, both in words and in action, became common knowledge. After the government's promulgation of the "General Mobilization Order" for the suppression of the Communist Rebellion in July, 1947, it did its best to assist the communists in sabotaging the "General Mobilization Order."

Members of the League worked in communist areas, collaborated with the communists in inciting labor trouble and student unrest, sabotaged the General Mobilization Order, and participated in an anti-American movement.

After the ban, Chang Lan, chairman of the Democratic League, announced that his organization would discontinue all activities in accordance with the Government's order. Many of its important members, however, soon left for Hongkong where they resumed anti-government activities under the leadership of Shen Chun-ju who, meanwhile, became the League's acting chairman.

THE YOUNG CHINA PARTY

Early History

The Young China party was founded in Paris on December 2, 1923. Among the founders were Tseng Chi, Li Huang, Ho Lu-chih, Chang Tze-chu, and Cheng Chen-wen. In March, 1924, Tseng Chi was elected chairman of the party.

Most of its leaders returned to China in 1924 and published in Shanghai the *Awakening Lion Weekly* as their official organ. Tso Shun-sheng, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu and others of the former Young China Society then joined forces with those who had recently returned from Paris. The party's principles then were "to promote nationalism and to oppose warlords, the Communist party, and the pro-Russian policy of the Kuomintang, for the purpose of building up a free, independent and prosperous China."

The Young China party held its First National Congress in Peiping (then Peking) in July, 1926. At that time its stand was against the use of force in the unification of the nation. Following the "Mukden Incident" of 1931, some of its members were engaged in guerilla warfare against the Japanese. In the 1932 war in Shanghai, General Wong Chao-yuan, a member of the Young China party, distinguished himself as a gallant defender of Woosung Fort.

In 1932, the National Government convened a National Crisis Conference. Among those invited to participate were nine leaders of the Young China party who refused to attend. They insisted that the Kuomintang forthwith conclude its party rule. Their demand, chorused by other minority parties, was the immediate formation of a "National Defense Government."

Wartime Activities

Immediately after the outbreak of the war in July, 1937, the National Government invited leaders of the various political parties and groups, as well as independents, to Kuling for conversations on current problems. A number of Young China party leaders including Tseng Chi, Tso Shun-sheng, and Li Huang participated. As a result a "National Defense Council" was formed, and Tseng, Tso and Li were among those appointed to the council.

In April, 1938, the Kuomintang Extraordinary National Congress had adopted the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction.* The Young China party, through its representative, Tso, exchanged letters with Generalissimo Chiang, *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang, pledging support to the national war effort. Mr. Tso said in his letter that "since the National Government is the highest authority of the country by which the war is being carried on, we are determined to support it. . . . We have no other wish but to cooperate with the Kuomintang for the preservation of the nation." The Generalissimo, in reply, pointed out the Kuomintang's need for the cooperation of others, and said, in part: "The common expectation throughout the country today is the expulsion of the Japanese invader and the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles. In view of the seriousness of the duties laid upon the Kuomintang, we are anxious to seek the cooperation of all men of ability. If your aim coincides with ours, we shall surely be able to work in unison for the welfare of the nation."

In July, the same year, when the "People's Political Council" was established, six leaders of the Young China party were chosen as members. They were: Tseng Chi, Li Huang, Tso Shun-sheng, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu, and Chang Nai-teh. Seventeen other Young China party members were later chosen members of the People's Political Council. In July, 1945, Tso went to Yenan with four other members of the People's Political Council in an effort to get the communists to cooperate with the National Government. The mission, like several others, failed.

Post-war Period

In January, 1946, the National Government convened a Political Consultation Conference, which was attended by all parties and independents, including the communists. A number of resolutions was adopted concerning the convocation of the National Assembly, the establishment of constitutional government, the revision of the draft constitution, and the Government - Communist dispute. The Young China party was represented by Tseng Chi, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu, Yang Yung-chun, and Chang Nai-teh.

The communists participated in the conference, but refused to abide by its resolutions. No agreement was reached in the subsequent protracted negotiations between the government and the Chinese Communists.

The Young China party sent 100 delegates to the National Assembly held in Nanking in November-December, 1946. By this time, the communists and the Democratic League had definitely decided not to cooperate with the Government. The Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party and the independents continued negotiations with the Government for the formation of an interim government.

In March, 1947, thirteen members of the Young China party were appointed members of the Legislative Yuan, and six, as members of the Control Yuan. On April 17, 1947, Tseng Chi, together with representative of the Kuomintang and the Democratic Socialist party as well as independents signed an agreement for the reorganization of the Government. Tseng Chi, Yu Chia-chu, Ho Lu-chih and Chang Nai-teh (deceased) were later chosen State Councillors of the National Government. Four members of the Young China party were included in the new cabinet, namely, Chen Chi-tien, minister of economic affairs; Tso Shun-sheng, minister of agriculture and forestry; Yang Yung-chun and Cheng Chen-wen, ministers without portfolio.

The coalition government lasted until June, 1948, when it was succeeded by a new cabinet formed upon the conclusion of the First National Assembly, which met in March-April, 1948. In the new government, members of the Young China party are taking part not only in the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan (the last two being electriv bodies) in the National Government, but in local administrations as well.

Present Organization

Organization of the Young China party, although on a smaller scale, is similar to that of the Kuomintang. Highest organ of authority is the National Congress, under which are the Central Executive and Supervisory Committees, followed by the provincial and *hsien* organs. In central headquarters, there are a secretariat and a number of boards and committees.

The Party's Central Executive Committee has 99 members and its Central Supervisory Committee 21 members. The C.E.C. elects a 19-men Standing Committee from among its own members. The Standing Committee of the C.S.C. has five members.

Standing Committee of the Young China Party C.E.C., 1948

Chairman: Tseng Chi

Members:

Tseng Chi
Cheng Chen-wen
Wang Ssu-tseng
Li Huang
Chen Chi-tien
Ho Lu-chih
Liu Tung-yen
Hsia Tao-sheng
Tso Shun-sheng
Yu Chia-chu
Yu Fu-hsien
Yang Yung-chun
Lin Ko-chi
Tan Shen-hsiu
Yu Hsiao-chuan
Liu Ssu-ying
Liu Ching-yuan
Chang Tze-chu
Wang Lai-seng

Secretary-General: Yu Fu-hsien

Board Directors:

Internal Affairs: Tan Sheng-hsiu
External Affairs: Li Huang
Organization: Hsia Tao-sheng
Publicity: Wang Ssu-tseng
Training: Yu Chia-chu
Social Movement: Wang Lai-seng

Committee Chairmen:

Women's Movement: Yu Hsiao-chuan
Financial Affairs: Cheng Chen-wen
Cultural Movement: Chou Chien-chung
Technical on Political Affairs: Chang Po-lun
Technical on Economic Affairs: Liu Ssu-ying

Standing Committee of the C.S.C., 1948

Chairman: Li Pu-wei
Vice-Chairman: Chang Meng-chiu
Members: Chang Hua-chu
Ching Cheng-lieh
Hsiao Li-yun

THE DEMOCRATIC SOCIALIST PARTY

A Brief History

The Democratic Socialist party resulted from amalgamation of the National Socialist party and Democratic Constitutional party in August, 1946. It advocates, as its name indicates, democracy and socialism.

One of its parents, the National Socialist party, was established in 1934 and held its first national congress in Peiping that year. The leaders then included Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun, Hu Shih-ching, Lo Lung-chi, Hsu Fu-lin, and Liang Chiu-shui.

National socialism was first advocated by Chang Tung-sun in *The China Times,* a Chinese daily in Shanghai, in 1920. In 1931, Chang Tung-sun joined Carsun Chang and Lo Lung-chi in forming the "Rebirth Society" in Peiping and published *The Rebirth Magazine.* The two Changs and Lo were all university professors in Peiping. Most members of the Rebirth Society were students and teachers.

Between 1934 and 1937, membership of the party increased considerably. Carsun Chang as leader of the party frequently expressed the party's views on current events in various newspapers and periodicals in Peiping and Shanghai.

The party's relations with the Kuomintang were generally similar to those of the Young China party. Like the Young China party, the National Socialist party exchanged letters with the Kuomintang shortly after the outbreak of the war to pledge support to the national war effort. On behalf of the National Socialist party, Carsun Chang wrote to Generalissimo Chiang explaining in detail the similarities between the program of the National Socialist party and the *Three People's Principles* of Dr. Sun Yat-sen. He stated that "at the present critical moment nothing is more important than wholehearted and unreserved support for the National Government," and that he and his colleagues were ready to discuss all questions with the Kuomintang in a spirit of cordial cooperation.

In reply, the Generalissimo said, in part, "I hope men of ability will either join the Kuomintang or sympathize with the Kuomintang principles and endeavor to have them realized. As to the freedom of speech, the freedom of press, and the freedom of assembly, these are clearly defined in the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction.* This guarantee shall serve as the rallying point both for the members of the Kuomintang and for non-members in their efforts to achieve national salvation."

Seven members of the National Socialist party were invited to take part in the First People's Political Council, formed in 1938. They included Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun, and Lo Lung-chi. The party was also represented in the Political Consultation Conference in 1946, and participated in the two national assemblies of 1946 and 1948.

The Democratic Constitutional party, the second of the Democratic Socialist party's parent bodies, was an offshoot of the Chinese Constitutional (monarchists) party in America, led by Li Ta-ming. When Carsun Chang went to San Francisco as a member of the Chinese delegation to the United Nations conference in 1945, he met Li and began negotiations for the merger of the two parties which was effected in 1946.

Carsun Chang represented the Democratic Socialist party in signing the agreement for the organization of the interim government in April. Hsu Fu-lin, Wu Hsien-tze, Chi Yi-chiao, and Hu Hai-men of the party were chosen state councillors of the National Government, and Li Ta-ming and Chiang Yun-tien were appointed minister without portfolio. Hsu Fu-lin ran in the 1948 vice-presidential elections. In the new government formed in May, 1948, members of the Democratic Socialist party participated in all branches of the administration. One of them Shih Chih-chuan, was made vice-president of the Judicial Yuan.

Leaders of the Democratic Socialist party were divided in their opinions on the participation in the government. Some of them, including Wu Hsien-tze, Liang Chiu-shui, Chang Tung-sun and Li Ta-ming, were opposed to Carsun Chang's decision to join the government. They formed a reform committee of the Democratic Socialist party in August, 1947. As a result, a number of them were expelled from the party. In October, 1948, the reform committee announced the formation of the so-called Liberal Socialist party.

Present Organization

The Democratic Socialist party has a central headquarters and provincial and *hsien* branches. The supreme organ of authority is the Party National Congress, under which are the Central Executive and Supervisory committees.

Standing Committee of the Democratic Socialist Party C.E.C., 1948

Carsun Chang (Chairman)
Carsun Chang (Chairman)
Hu Hai-men
Chiang Yun-tien
Chin Lung-chang
Hsiang Kou-fu
Shih Chih-chuan
Hsu Fu-lin
Tang Chu-hsin
Feng Chin-po
Sun Ya-fu
Li Sheng-tse
Chi Yi-chiao
Chang Ling-kao
Yang Yu-tze
Tsui Hsin-yi
Lo Ching-hsuan

Secretary-General: Chin Hou-cheng
Deputy Secretaries—General: Yang Yu-tze, Sun Ya-fu
Board Directors
- Organization: Chi Yi-chiao
- Deputies: Cheng Chi-chih, Wang Shih-hsien
- Publicity: Hsu Fu-lin
- Deputies: Chiang Yun-tien, Tsui Hsin-yi
- Social Affairs: Wu Cheng
- Deputies: Chen Shu-kun, Li Chih-sheng
- Overseas Affairs: Yang Chun-ming (acting)
- Deputies: Yang Chun-ming, Cheng Tien-shih
- Women's: Lo Ching-hsuan
- Deputy: Chen Ting-hsiu

Representative in Nanking: Chiang Yun-tien
Spokesman: Tsui Hsin-yi

OTHER PARTIES AND GROUPS

The Third Party

The "Third Party" was formed in 1927 after the split between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party. Its leaders were opposed to both parties. The founder of the party was Teng Yen-ta. Its original name was the "Chinese Revolutionary party," renamed the "Extraordinary Action Committee of the Kuomintang" in 1930. Soon there was a split within the party between Hsu Chien in north China and Chang Po-chun in the south. The two groups met in Hongkong in 1935, and the party's name was changed to the "Chinese National Liberation Action Committee," which remains its official title.

Immediately after the outbreak of the war in 1937, the Third Party pledged itself to support the National Government. Chang Po-chun later became a member of the first and the fourth People's Political Council, and took part in the Political Consultation Conference in 1946.

The National Salvation Association

The "National Salvation Association" was formed in Shanghai in 1936. Among its founders were Shen Chun-ju, Tsou Tao-fen, (deceased), Chang Shen-fu, Wang Chao-shih, Chang Nai-chi, Li Kung-pu (deceased), Shih Liang (Miss), and Sha Chien-li.

Activities were greatly extended in December, 1936, when Japanese aggression intensified in north China. It organized students' demonstrations and initiated appeals to the Government in favor of war with Japan. Meanwhile, it set up cells among students, in women's organizations, cultural groups and business associations. Finally a "Federation of National Salvation Associations" was established.

After the outbreak of the war in 1937, the association was reorganized into the "United Anti-Japan and National Salvation Association." Its leaders played an important part in leading the Democratic League down the communist line.

The National Association of Vocational Education

The "National Association of Vocational Education" was formed in Shanghai in 1927. Among its leaders were Huang Yen-pei, Yang Wei-yu, and Chiang Heng-yuan. It remained purely as an academic society until 1931, when, because of the Japanese invasion of the northeast, it added "national salvation" to its working program.

Association headquarters are in Shanghai and branches in various parts of the country. Members are mostly educators and industrialists.

In 1945, Huang organized the "Democratic National Reconstruction Association" with "economic democratization" as its political creed, advocating the development of private enterprises. Members of the Standing Committee of its Board of Executives are: Huang Yen-pei, Hu Chueh-wen, Chang Nai-chi, Chien Yung-ming, C. C. Lee, Ssu Fu-liang, Yang Wei-yu, Huang Mo-han, Hu Tze-ying, Y. S. Djang, and Sun Meng-chi.

The Rural Reconstruction Group

This group originally consisted of the "Shantung Institute of Rural Reconstruction," the "National Association for the Advancement of Mass Education," the "Hsukungchiao Experimental Station of the National Association of Vocational Education" and other organizations of rural reconstruction and reform. In 1931, the "National Association for Rural Reconstruction" was inaugurated. Among the leaders were Liang Shu-ming, James Y. C. Yen, Y. S. Djang, and Cato Yang.

In 1941, when the "Federation of Democratic Parties and Associations" was formed in Hongkong, Liang Shu-ming took part as a representative of the "Rural Reconstruction Group," and later attended the Political Consultation Conference in 1946.

CHAPTER 11

THE COMMUNIST ISSUE

EARLY KUOMINTANG-COMMUNIST RELATIONS

The Kuomintang's relations with the Chinese Communist party have been long and ruinous. In December, 1922, A. Joffe, the Soviet Union's special envoy to China, met Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Shanghai. The following January, they issued a joint statement, which reads in part as follows:

"Dr. Sun Yat-sen holds that the communistic order or even the soviet system cannot actually be introduced into China, because there do not exist here the conditions for the successful establishment of either communism or sovietism. This view is entirely shared by Mr. Joffe, who is further of the opinion that China's paramount and most pressing problem is to achieve national unification and attain full national independence, and regarding this task, he has assured Dr. Sun that China has the warmest sympathy of the Russian people and can count on the support of Russia."

In January, 1924, following the reorganization of the Kuomintang, an understanding was reached whereby individual Chinese Communists were allowed to join the Kuomintang "in order to bolster the strength of revolutionary elements in the country." Li Ta-chao, then an important member in the Chinese Communist party declared: "In joining the Kuomintang, communists of the Third International are to obey Kuomintang discipline and to participate in the national revolution. They have not the slightest intention of turning the Kuomintang into a Communist party. Those communists who join the Kuomintang do so as individuals and not on a party basis."

Soon after they were admitted, however, the communists began to work against the Three People's Principles. At first, they were opposed to the Northern Expedition. After it had been launched, they infiltrated into political and military organs, spread their surreptitious activities and tried to establish control over the masses. Early in 1927, after the nationalists had reached the Yangtze river, important communists sabotaged the expedition by creating a reign of terror in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi behind the nationalist lines.

In order to salvage the expedition, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and other Kuomintang leaders left for Nanking. In April, 1927, Nanking was declared the national capital of China. Simultaneously, an anti-Communist purge was effected within the Kuomintang.

In July, the same year, the communists adopted a program of armed insurrection. From then on, for a period of about eight years, the communists maintained a separate army and an independent government over parts of several central China provinces with their "capital" in Juikin, southern Kiangsi. This was done in deliberate defiance of the National Government at Nanking. Finding it impossible to countenance such acts of insubordination, the government resorted to military measures. Numerous campaigns were launched. By early 1935, as a government ring begin to tighten around Juikin, the communists fled westward across many provinces, until they finally reached northern Shensi.

The increasing Japanese menace after the invasion of the Northeastern provinces (Manchuria) in 1931, and the realization of the futility of further armed opposition to the National Government made the communists see the necessity of reconciliation with the Kuomintang. In May, 1936, they appealed to the National Government that the punitive campaign against communist forces be discontinued in order that they could join hands against Japanese aggression. Three months later, they repeated their appeal to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and sent delegates to conduct negotiations with Kuomintang leaders.

At the Third Plenary Session of its Fifth Central Executive Committee held in Nanking in February, 1937, the

Kuomintang discussed concrete proposals of the Chinese Communist party and resolved that a reconciliation could be effected only on the following four conditions, which were subsequently accepted by the communists:

(1) Abolition of the communist army and its incorporation into the united command of the nation's armed forces.

(2) Dissolution of the "Chinese Soviet Republic" and similar organizations and unification of government power in the hands of the National Government.

(3) Absolute cessation of communist propaganda and acceptance of the Three People's Principles.

(4) Stoppage of class struggle.

In July, 1937, Japan launched her premeditated attack on north China. China rose in self-defense. Accepting these conditions, the communist troops were first reorganized into the Eighth Route Army and later into the 18th Group Army, with Chu Teh and Peng Teh-huai as commander and deputy-commander. The Chinese Communist party's declaration to the nation on September 22, 1937, contained the following important points:

"(1) In order to safeguard the independence and freedom of the Chinese nation, a war of resistance shall be proclaimed. Only as the result of such a war can the lost provinces be restored and the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the country be maintained.

(2) The Communist party is prepared to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles because they answer the present-day needs of China.

(3) The policy of insurrection which aims at the overthrow of the Kuomintang political power, the policy of land confiscation, and the policy of communist propaganda shall be discontinued.

(4) With the disappearance of the "Chinese Soviet Government," a system of political democracy shall be put into practice, so that the country may be politically unified.

(5) The former Chinese Red Army which has been reorganized into the Eighth Route Army shall be under the control of the National Military Council, and always ready to be sent to the front.

Commenting on this declaration, Generalissimo Chiang in a press interview on September 23, 1937, said: "The declaration made by the Chinese Communist party clearly shows that national interests supersede all other considerations. The points contained in it tend to strengthen the National Government in its resistance to foreign invasion. The reference made by the Communist party to its readiness to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles further shows that the efforts of the entire nation are directed to one single aim."

COMMUNIST PLEDGES

Despite its pledges to support the National Government, the Chinese Communist party persisted in insubordination and refused to carry out military and administrative orders of the government. The 18th Group Army caused numerous disturbances in the northern provinces. Meanwhile, the New Fourth Army, formed of remnants of communist troops south of the Yangtze after the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, was expanding at the expense of the national forces.

During the early stage of the Sino-Japanese War, the government took the communist pledges at their face value, and respected their avowed intention of fighting shoulder to shoulder with the national forces against the Japanese invaders. It treated communist units on an equal basis with other units fighting the Japanese, and a considerable amount of arms, munitions, equipment and other supplies were given to them. But subsequent events proved that the communists had sinister designs of their own.

Shortly after their incorporation into the national forces, Chu Teh was ordered to move his men westward into Shansi to augment the forces under General Yen Hsi-shan. Communist units under Ho Lung were deployed in the Wutai mountains in north Shansi, those under Liu Po-cheng, in the Tayueh mountains in central Shansi and those under Lin Piao, in the Luliang mountains in the western part of the province. They were to harass the enemy's rear so that General Yen's forces could fight pitched battles against the Japanese coming down the Tatung-Puchow railway.

Instead of carrying out these orders, the communists were soon found attacking national forces in areas unpenetrated by the enemy. In 1939, when General Yen was training a new army in southeast Shansi preparatory to a counterattack, communist elements infiltrated into the new army and instigated a revolt against Yen, who was consequently compelled to retreat to Lingchuan and Linhsien on the Shansi-Honan border. By the time the battles of the Chungtiao mountains were fought in 1940, the communists under Ho Lung and Lin Piao had pushed so far down into the Tayueh mountains that national forces had to withdraw from

Shansi into Honan across the Yellow river in order to escape total annihilation.

At the end of a three-year-long battle for Shansi, national forces had lost the Chengting-Taiyuan railway, and the Tatung-Puchow railway and their adjacent areas to the enemy, and every district not occupied by the enemy to the communists. The fact was then established that if the communists were not in collusion with the Japanese, at least their operations were well coordinated with the Japanese movements.

Encouraged by their initial successes in Shansi, communist forces started in 1939 to penetrate into the neighboring province of Hopei, where General Chang Ying-wu's militiamen had held the Japanese at bay along the railway lines for almost two years since the withdrawal of national forces. At one time or another they were so successful that they even brought the war to the Japanese in Paoting, capital of the Hopei province. Their very gallantry had aroused the jealousy of the communists, and Chang's militia forces of 300,000 men were forced to wage a two-way battle against the Japanese and the communists at the same time. In less than two years of uphill fight, this tremendous force was reduced to nothing and Chang himself was compelled to flee from the province.

The communists under Hsu Hsiang-chien, seeing that the countryside of Shansi and Hopei was firmly in their grasp, began in 1940 their attacks on the national forces in Shantung. General Yu Hsueh-chung's mobile units, scattered over all the hilly regions in the coastal province, already hard-pressed by the Japanese, found it exceedingly difficult to resist communist encroachment. In 1941, when the Japanese started a general offensive against Yu, communists took advantage of the situation to oust Yu from the province and absorb his forces. In the Battle of Anchiu in 1941, General Chin Chi-jung, director of the field headquarters of the Shantung provincial government, was captured and tortured to death by the communists.

While the communists were stretching their tentacles in north China, the New Fourth Army in the lower Yangtze valley provinces, attacked friendly national forces and sought to enlarge the size of their army. When first organized in January, 1940, it had only 5,000 men. By the middle of the year, its ranks had already swollen to 13,000 men. In November, it attacked in rapid succession the government 40th Division in south Kiangsu, and part of the government 32nd Army Corps in south Anhwei. To uphold discipline, General Ku Chu-tung, commander-in-chief of the third war zone, in January, 1941, ordered its disbandment, resulting in the capture of its commander, Yeh Ting. Part of the communists under Yeh's command fled to north Kiangsu. There, in defiance of the government order, they reorganized themselves into a new army with Chen Yi as their commander.

In 1943, when the national forces were battling powerful Japanese contingents in west Honan, communists under Li Hsien-nien swooped down from Shantung and others under Wang Chen drove from Shensi, making their way through heavily-guarded government areas to the Tahung and the Tapieh mountains, thereby giving aid and comfort to the enemy. When victory finally came, the communists on the Honan-Hupeh border were still expanding.

According to official estimates, communist forces of 25,000 at the time of their incorporation into the National Army were increased at the end of the war to 310,000. The 18th Army Group had originally two divisions totalling 20,000 men; by V-J Day its ranks were already increased to nine divisions, one army, one column and seven independent brigades, totalling 190,000 men. The disbanded New Fourth Army claimed 120,000 officers and men at the end of the war, approximately 24 times its strength when it started out in 1937.

The "Chinese Soviet Government," which the communists promised to dissolve in their 1937 declaration, reappeared under other names. In the northwest, there appeared the so-called "Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Government" and the "Shansi-Chahar-Hopei Border Government," both set up by the communists without any authorization from the National Government. In these regions, the communists not only circulated their own currencies, collected taxes and appointed local officials, but also indoctrinated the masses in communism.

Throughout these harassing years, Generalissimo Chiang adhered to a tolerant policy. In November, 1942, he asserted that the communists would be treated like all other armed forces and civilians of the nation so long as they obey laws, refrain from disturbing social order, organize no army of their own, cease occupation by force, abstain from hindering the prosecution of the war, or undermining national unity; and, in accordance with their manifesto of September 22, 1937, in which they had expressed their readiness to face the national crisis in

cooperation with the rest of the country, obey the orders of the National Government and work for the realization of the Three People's Principles.

Trying to seek a political settlement of the communist question, negotiations between the National Government and the Chinese Communist party began on May 4, 1944 at Sian. The government representatives were Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, then minister of information, and General Chang Chih-chung, then minister of political training of the National Military Council. The Chinese Communist party was represented by Lin Tsu-han. The Sian talks lasted for 10 days. Finally the communist demands, as made by Lin, were put down in writing and forwarded to the government for consideration. The important points in these demands were:

In regard to military matters, the communist troops agreed to obey government orders. They, however, wanted the government to recognize them as 12 divisions instead of their original three, and to give them similar treatment as other units in the National Army in regard to pay and supplies. There shall be no change of officers in the communist forces. Nor did they want to be transferred from their present locale; instead they asked to be allowed to fight the enemy in their original areas.

Politically they wanted the government to give legal recognition to the Shensi border area and to endow it with a higher degree of autonomy. On its part the "border area government" would observe within its area all laws and regulations of the National Government. It also would agree to register with the government the regulations specially adapted to local conditions, to stop printing or circulating border area banknotes, leaving to the Ministry of Finance the responsibility of finding a solution for the notes already in circulation. Besides, the communists wanted the "government blockade" of the border area discontinued. They also wanted the government to grant the Chinese Communist party a legal status.

These proposals were brought to Chungking by the representatives of both parties. On June 5, 1944, the government's reply, in which most of the communist demands were accepted, was handed to the communist representative. The government was willing to recognize 10 communist divisions. Later President Chiang stated in his report to the People's Political Council which met in September, that the government was willing even to consider the communist demand for 13 divisions.

Meanwhile, Lin Tsu-han reported that on June 4, he had new instructions from Yenan demanding 16 divisions, and also asking the government to accord legal recognition to the communist "north China bases." Later, they wanted the government to recognize their "north China, central China and south China bases."

In early November of the same year, Major-General Patrick Hurley came to China as President Roosevelt's special envoy and offered his good offices in the negotiations. He flew to Yenan upon the invitation of the communists. There he had long talks with Mao Tse-tung. Finally he brought back a draft agreement signed by Mao himself. The major demands in the new communist proposal were the organization of a "coalition government" and of a "United National Military Council," and the recognition of the legality of the Chinese Communist party.

General Chou En-Lai had replaced Lin Tsu-han as the communist representative and had flown to Chungking with General Hurley. The National Government, in reply, rejected the coalition government offer, but consented to the incorporation of the Chinese Communist forces in the National Army and the inclusion of communist members in the National Military Council. It further agreed to pursue policies designed to promote the progress and development of democratic processes in government.

Chou flew back to Yenan. From there he wired, accusing the government of insincerity, adding that it would not be possible for the Chinese Communist party to accept the government's counter-proposals. General Hurley, who had by then become the American Ambassador to China, sent several telegrams to Chou urging him to return to Chungking to continue the negotiations. Chou answered that four prerequisites, implying malpractices without foundation in fact, must be fulfilled before he would come. They were: (1) lifting the blockade of the border area, (2) release of political prisoners, (3) abolishing of laws curtailing the people's freedoms, and (4) abolishing of secret police.

The government considered the four conditions not in agreement with the facts. Out of its desire to create interparty harmony, the government offered to give the communists representation in the war cabinet within the framework of the Executive Yuan, to establish a three-man committee to consider all matters concerning the reorganization and treatment of communist troops and to appoint an

American officer to command the communist troops during the war. The communists refused to accept the new proposals on the grounds that the Executive Yuan had no power to make final decisions. At this juncture, they came forth with a new proposal for the convocation of a "conference of parties" to discuss a joint program.

No progress in the negotiations was made in the ensuing months. The Communist party still maintained contact with the government and kept on making new demands. When the Chinese Delegation to the San Francisco Conference was appointed, the government included Tung Pi-wu, communist member of the People's Political Council, as a member of the delegation.

SUMMARY OF TALKS

During the last days of the Sino-Japanese War, the National Government felt more than ever the need for national unity and Government - Communist rapprochement in order to achieve speedy postwar reconstruction and rehabilitation. There was a necessity for speeding up the Government-Communist talks. Three invitations were extended by President Chiang Kai-shek to Mao Tse-tung to come to Chungking for direct negotiations. Accompanied by U. S. Ambassador Patrick J. Hurley, Mao arrived in Chungking on August 28, 1945, and stayed for about one month during which he had several talks with President Chiang. Meanwhile, conversations went on between Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Shao Li-tze, General Chang Chun and General Chang Chih-chung on behalf of the government; and General Chou En-lai and Wang Jo-fei on behalf of the communists.

A summary of the talks published by the government on October 10, 1945, reporting the conversations between the government and the communists, reaffirmed the government's program. It stated in substance:

1. *Basic policy on peaceful national reconstruction.*—It was agreed that under the leadership of President Chiang, cooperation should be made permanent and resolute measures be taken to avert internal strife so that a new China, independent, free and prosperous, might be built and the Three People's Principles fully implemented. Both parties further agreed that political democratization, nationalization of troops and recognition of the equal status of the political parties were essential to the achievement of peaceful national reconstruction.

2. *On political democratization.*—It was agreed that the period of political tutelage should be brought to an early conclusion, that constitutional government should be inaugurated and that necessary preliminary measures should be immediately adopted, such as the convocation of the National Assembly and a Political Consultation Conference, to which all parties and non-partisan leaders would be invited, to exchange views on national affairs and discuss questions relating to peaceful national reconstruction and the convocation of the National Assembly.

3. *On the National Assembly.*—Three proposals were advanced by the Chinese Communist party, namely, re-election of all delegates to the National Assembly, postponement of the date of convocation and revision of the May 5 Draft Constitution. The government representatives maintained that the election of the delegates to the National Assembly already held should be valid, but that the number of delegates may be reasonably increased. As regards the May 5 Draft Constitution, the government representatives reminded the communists that the draft constitution had already been submitted to the public for study, and suggestions for its revision were invited. No agreement was reached on those points. But the communist representatives made it known that they did not wish to permit national unity to be ruptured by the differences. Both parties agreed that the points concerned should be brought before the proposed Political Consultation Conference for settlement.

4. *On the people's freedoms.*—It was agreed that the government was to guarantee the freedoms of person, religion, speech, publications and assembly. Existing laws and decrees should be either abolished or revised in accordance with this principle.

5. *On the legality of political parties.*—Both parties agreed that all political parties should be equal before the law and the fact should be given immediate recognition.

6. *On the special service agencies.*—Both parties agreed that the government should strictly prohibit all officers other than law courts and police to make arrests, conduct trials and impose punishment.

7. *On release of political prisoners.*—Both parties agreed that all political prisoners with the exception of those guilty of treason should be released. The Chinese Communist party may submit a list of people who they thought should be released.

8. *On local self-government.*—Both sides agreed that local self-government should be vigorously promoted. General elections should be conducted from the lower levels upward. However, the government expressed the hope that this would not affect the convocation of the National Assembly.

9. *On the nationalization of troops.*—It was proposed by the communists that the government should effect an equitable and rational reorganization of the entire Chinese Army; decide on the program and different stages of recognition; redemarcate the military zones; and inaugurate a conscription and replenishment system with a view to unifying military command. Under this program, the Chinese Communists finally expressed their readiness to reduce the troops under their command to 24 divisions or to a minimum of 20 divisions. The government representatives stated that the national troops reorganization program was being carried out, and the government was willing to reorganize the communist-led anti-Japanese troops into 20 divisions, if other issues coming up in the present talks could be satisfactorily settled.

The government also indicated that it was ready to consider proposals made by the communists that their military personnel should participate in the National Military Council and the various ministries under the council, and that the government would respect the personnel system of the army units and commission the original officers after the reorganization of the units.

In order to formulate concrete plans in regard to questions concerning the reorganization of the National and Communist Armies, it was agreed that a subcommitee of three, with one representative each from the Board of Military Operations of the National Military Council, the Ministry of War and the 18th Group Army, be formed.

10. *On local governments in the "liberated areas."*—The communist representatives proposed that the government should recognize the popularly elected government in the "liberated areas." The government representatives pointed out that after the unconditional surrender of Japan the term "liberated areas" became obsolete and the integrity of the administrative authority of the country should be respected.

The initial formula advanced by the communists was to redemarcate the provincial and administrative areas according to the conditions then prevailed in the 18 liberated areas. And to preserve administrative integrity, the Communist party would submit to the government a list of officials of the popularly elected governments for reappointment.

The government replied that the redemarcation of provincial boundaries would involve changes of unusual magnitude, and the question should be very carefully and thoroughly considered and could not be resolved in a short time. Furthermore, the government indicated that after the unification of the military command and administrative authority, the National Government would take into consideration administrative personnel nominated by the Communist party. The government would consider retaining the services of those functionaries who had served in the recovered areas during the war on the basis of their ability and record without regard to party affiliations.

After lengthy discussions on the topic, the communist representatives proposed the formula that all liberated areas temporarily retain their *status quo* until the constitutional provision for the popular election of provincial government officials had been adopted and put into effect. For the time being, an interim arrangement was to be worked out to guarantee the restoration of peace and order.

Finally, both parties agreed that this particular problem be submitted to the Political Consultation Conference for discussion and settlement.

11. *On traitors and puppet troops.*—Both parties agreed in principle that traitors should be severely punished and puppet troops disbanded. The government representatives advanced the opinion that traitors should be dealt with according to law and the disbandment of puppet troops should be carried out in such a manner that peace and order in the areas concerned would not be disturbed.

12. *On accepting the surrender of Japanese army.*—The communist representatives asked that the communist troops be allowed to participate in the task of accepting the surrender of Japanese troops and that the areas of surrender should be redefined. The government representatives answered that the participation of the Communist party in accepting the surrender of Japanese troops could be considered after the troops of the Communist party had accepted the orders of the National Government.

While conversations were continuing in Chungking, communist troops indulged in aggressive activities in east and north China. Railways, surrendered by the Japanese to government troops, were cut by

the communists and *hsiens* occupied by them increased from 81 throughout the country when Japanese surrendered, to more than 300 in the middle of October, some of them from Japanese and puppet troops already surrendered to the government troops, and some seized from the National Army.

On October 26, government representatives made a three-point proposal to the communist representatives. The government demanded that firstly, railway communications should be restored; secondly, communist troops should evacuate railway zones and the *status quo* in the areas already under communist occupation should be maintained; and thirdly, General Yeh Chien-ying, representative of the 18th Group Army, should come to Chungking at the earliest possible time so that the Military Sub-Committee could commence discussion on the reorganization of the communist troops and their garrison areas.

The communist representatives transmitted this proposal to Yenan and asked for instructions. On October 29, the communists made a counter-proposal: First, that in order to avoid a civil war and to restore communications, the movement of troops, all acts of attacking and occupying, and the employment of the services of the Japanese and puppet troops should cease and both sides should not station troops on the eight main railway lines, namely, the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Tatung-Puchow, the Chengting-Taiyuan, the northern section of the Peiping-Hankow, the eastern section of Lunghai, the Tientsin-Pukow, the Tsingtao-Tsinan, and the western section of the Peiping-Mukden railways. When it was necessary for the government to move troops on these railways to Tsingtao, Peiping and Tientsin, the communists should first be consulted: Secondly, the Military Sub-Committee should work out a solution only after an agreement on the above-mentioned problems had been reached in principle: Thirdly, if no understanding could be reached on these problems, the communists would not oppose the early convocation of the Political Consultation Conference, which should first of all discuss the question of avoiding civil war and restoring communications.

On October 31, the government gave the communists a reply, suggesting the following:

1. Both sides should order their troops to remain at their respective positions and cease offensive action.

2. Communist troops should evacuate the points ten kilometers distant from the railways. The Central Government would dispatch railroad police units instead of troops to garrison the railway zones evacuated by the communists.

3. The People's Political Council organize and dispatch a communications supervision and inspection group to various railways in order to make investigations on the spot in conjunction with local inhabitants of known integrity and publish reports of their findings from time to time.

4. Government troops should consult with the communists when they had to be transported on the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Tatung-Puchow, the Chengting-Taiyuan, the Tsingtao-Tsinan, and the Lunghai railways and the northern section of the Tientsin-Pukow railway.

5. Both sides should consult each other and work out fundamental measures for the organization of communist troops and the delineation of the communist garrison areas within one month so as to facilitate peaceful national reconstruction.

6. The proposed Political Consultation Conference should be convoked as scheduled.

The government did not receive the communists' reply until November 3. The communist note, in fact, failed to touch upon any of the things the government had suggested. Instead, it raised four new demands:

1. The National Military Council should order national troops all over the country to cease attacks on the "liberated areas."

2. National troops should be completely withdrawn from their advance posts.

3. National troops should evacuate the eight railways.

4. The National Government should repeal the badit suppression order and guarantee that no further offensives would be launched against the "liberated areas."

The conversations thus reached an impasse.

On November 27, U. S. Ambassador Hurley resigned and General George C. Marshall was appointed as President Truman's special envoy to China. Following his arrival, conversations between the government and the communists were resumed and preparations for the convocation of the Political Consultation Conference accelerated.

POLITICAL CONSULTATION CONFERENCE

The Summary of Conversation between the government and representatives of the Chinese Communist party, published on October 10, 1945, reported the decision of the conferees to convoke a Political Consultation Conference to which all parties and non-partisan leaders would be invited to exchange views on national affairs and discuss questions relating to peaceful national reconstruction and the convocation of the National Assembly.

On January 6, 1946, the National Government approved and promulgated the measures for the convocation of the Political Consultation Conference and released the names of its 38 members including eight from the Kuomintang, seven from the Chinese Communist party, 14 from other minority political parties and nine non-partisan leaders.

Delegates to the PPC were as follows:

Kuomintang.—Sun Fo, Wu Te-chen, Wang Shih-chieh, Chen Li-fu, Chang Li-sheng, Shao Li-tze, Chang Chun, Chen Pu-lei.

Chinese Communist Party.—Chou En-lai, Tung Pi-wu, Wang Jo-fei, Yeh Chien-ying, Wu Yu-chang, Lu Ting-yi and Miss Teng Ying-chao.

Young China Party.—Tseng Chi, Chen Chi-tien, Yang Yung-chun, Chang Nai-teh, Yu Chia-chu.

Chinese Democratic League. — Chang Lan, Lo Lung-chi, Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun.

National Salvation Association.—Shen Chun-ju, Chang Sheng-fu.

Vocational Education Association.—Huang Yen-pei.

The Third Party.—Chang Po-chun.

Rural Reconstruction Group. — Liang Shu-min.

Non - Partisans. — Mo Teh - hui, Shao Tsung-en, Wang Yung-wu, Fu Ssu-nien, Hu Lin, Kuo Mo-jo, Chien Yung-ming, Miao Chia-min, Li Chu-chen.

On January 10, the conference was formally opened in Chungking. Thirty-six delegates attended the opening session, the only absentee being Mo Teh-hui, who could not arrive from the northeast in time, and Carsun Chang, who was on his way back from abroad.

President Chiang Kai-shek presided over the inaugural session, and before making the opening address, expressed great pleasure at being able to announce measures for the cessation of hostilities in the country, and that the Cease-Fire Order would be immediately issued. The conference, originally scheduled to last two weeks, was prolonged for another week. It finally adjourned on January 31. In a spirit of mutual concession, the following resolutions were adopted at the PCC:

On Government Reorganization

1. The number of State Councillors would be increased to 40, and the presidents of the Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination and Control Yuan would be *ex-officio* members. They would be chosen by the President of the National Government. Half of the councillors would be chosen from among Kuomintang members, and the other half from among members of other political parties as well as prominent social leaders. The allocation would be discussed later.

2. The State Council would be the supreme organ of the government in charge of national affairs. The President of the National Government would have the authority to resubmit for second consideration any decision of the State Council which he deemed difficult of execution. In case three-fifths of the State Councillors, upon reconsideration, should vote to uphold the original decision, it would be carried out accordingly.

3. All ministers of the Executive Yuan would be *ipso facto* ministers of state. There would be three to five ministers of state without portfolios. Of the existing ministers under the Executive Yuan, and the proposed ministers of the state without portfolios, seven or eight would be appointed from among non-Kuomintang members. The number of ministries to be given to non-Kuomintang members would be discussed after the adjournment of the PCC.

On the National Assembly

1. The National Assembly should be convened on May 5, 1946.

2. The authority of the first National Assembly should be to adopt a constitution.

3. The passage of the constitution should be made with the concurrence of three-fourths of the delegates present.

4. The 1,200 regional and vocational delegates, who had already been elected according to the electoral law of the National Assembly, should be retained.

5. An additional 150 regional and vocational delegates should be provided for Taiwan and the Northeastern provinces.

6. Seven hundred seats should be added to the National Assembly, these to be apportioned among the various parties and social leaders. The ratio of apportionment should be decided later.

7. The total number of delegates to the National Assembly should be 2,050.

8. The organ to enforce the constitution should be set up six months after the adoption of the constitution.

On the Program of Peaceful National Reconstruction

1. The Three People's Principles should be the guiding policy for national reconstruction.

2. All forces of the nation should unite under the leadership of President Chiang Kai-shek to work for the construction of a united, free and democratic New China.

3. The principles of the democratization of the government and the nationalization of armed forces and the equality and legality of all political parties, as advocated by President Chiang, should be recognized as the indispensable courses through which peaceful national reconstruction should be achieved.

4. Political disputes should be settled through political means to ensure peaceful national development.

5. The people's freedom of person, thought, religion, speech, publication, assembly, residence, travel and communication should be safeguarded. Existing legislation that conflicts with the above principle should be revised or rescinded.

6. All administrative measures should fully respect the legitimate interests of people of all districts, classes and professions, and allow their equitable development. In order to increase administrative efficiency, various grades of the government machinery should be readjusted, a sound system of civil service should be established, the unity and independence of judicial power guaranteed, local self-rule intensively promoted, and the principle of power-equalization should apply in the demarcation of authority between the central and local governments.

On Military Affairs

1. The Army belongs to the state, and the soldier's duty is the defense of the country and the protection of the people. Military education should be permanently placed above partisan and personal affiliations.

2. No party or individual may make use of the Army as an instrument for political disputes; no soldier on active service in the Army may serve concurrently as a civil official; and the Army should be strictly forbidden to interfere in political affairs.

3. Upon completion of the preliminary measures for the reorganization of the Army, the National Military Council should be reorganized into a Ministry of National Defense under the Executive Yuan. The Minister of National Defense should not necessarily be a soldier.

4. The country's fighting forces should be reorganized into 50 or 60 divisions.

On the Draft Constitution

1. A committee for reviewing the draft constitution should be established. It would have a total membership of 25 of whom five would be nominated by each of the five political parties participating in the PCC. In addition, 10 technical experts outside the PCC would be appointed to serve. The committee would draw up a comprehensive scheme for the revision of the 1936 May 5 Draft Constitution on the basis of the principles recommended by the PCC and taking into consideration the revised draft of the Constitutional Government Promotion Association, and the opinions advanced by various circles.

2. The National Assembly should be the organ through which the electorate of the entire nation exercises its rights of election, initiative, referendum and recall.

3. The Legislative Yuan should be the highest legislative organ of the nation and should be elected by universal suffrage. Its powers should correspond to those of the congress in a democratic country.

4. The Control Yuan should be the highest supervisory organ of the country, and should be elected by the various provincial and municipal councils. It should exercise the powers of concurrence, impeachment and supervision.

5. The Judicial Yuan should be the Supreme Court of the country. It should deal with judicial administration, and should be composed of a number of grand judges. Judges of all ranks and members of the Examination Yuan should be above party affiliations.

6. The president of the Executive Yuan should be nominated by the President and appointed with the concurrence of the Legislative Yuan. The Executive Yuan should be responsible to the Legislative Yuan.

7. When the Legislative Yuan expresses a lack of confidence in the Executive Yuan as a whole, the Executive Yuan should either resign or request the President to dissolve the Legislative Yuan. The same president of the Executive Yuan, however, would not be empowered to request the dissolution of the Legislative Yuan more than once.

8. The province should be regarded as the highest unit of local self-government, and the provincial governor should be elected by the people. The demarcation of authority between the province and the central government should be based on the principle of power-equalization. While a province may formulate its own provincial constitution, it should not contravene the provisions of the National Constitution.

9. The power for the revision of the constitution should be vested in a joint conference of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan. The proposed amendments should be ratified by the organ electing the President.

When the PCC was in session, General Chang Chih-chung, representing the government, and General Chou En-lai, communist representative, exchanged views with General Marshall on the reorganization of the Chinese Army. The trio formed the PCC's military sub-committee. Starting from February 24, they formally discussed the basis for the reorganization of the armed forces and the integration of the communist troops into the National Army in accordance with the principles laid down by the PCC. An agreement was reached with regard to the army reorganization, and it was signed on February 25, 1946. Under its provisions, the Chinese Army should consist of 108 divisions of 14,000 men each at the conclusion of a 12-month period. Of these, 18 would be formed of communist forces. Within the following six months, government troops would be further reduced to 50 divisions and the communist forces to 10 divisions bringing the total down to 60 divisions.

It was further prescribed in the agreement that within three weeks of the promulgation of the agreement, both contracting parties were to submit lists and documents giving data on the divisions to be retained and the order of units to be disbanded. After the signing of the agreement, General Marshall, Chang and Chou started on February 28 their inspection tour in north China and central China. They visited Peiping, Kalgan, Tsining, Tsinan, Hsuchow, Sinsiang, Taiyuan, Kweishui, Yenan and Hankow. Their joint trip, which lasted six days, contributed substantially to the solution of many important problems concerning the cessation of hostilities, as well as the resumption of communications.

The three-man military sub-committee planned an inspection trip to the northeast, but the plan was dropped following the departure of General Marshall for the United States on March 13 to report on his duties. Before he left, the three-man military sub-committee met, and it was agreed to extend the scope of activities of the Executive Headquarters, established in Peiping early in January, to enforce the cease-fire order and supervise the restoration of communications. Under this agreement the headquarters was given authorization to extend its activities into the northeast by sending field teams to northeast points to see that hostilities were actually halted.

In less than three months after his arrival in China as President Truman's special envoy, General Marshall had helped in writing a cease-fire agreement, in having the PCC resolutions adopted and in the conclusion of the Agreement on Military Reorganization.

But things in China took an abrupt turn during General Marshall's absence in Washington. First the communists accused the Kuomintang of scrapping the PCC resolutions, and the Agreement on Military Reorganization on the grounds that the Kuomintang's Central Executive Committee at its Second Plenary Session had discussed these resolutions and the agreement. Fighting in the northeast assumed serious proportions following repeated communist obstruction of the government's efforts to take over the northeast.

In point of fact, all agreements entered into by the Kuomintang were ratified by the Kuomintang's CEC. Where the Kuomintang, out of its earnest desire to abide by Dr. Sun Yat-sen's bequeathed teachings, found in the resolutions recommendations difficult to implement, it asked its members of the Draft Constitution Examination Committee to explain, on behalf of the party, the difficulties the Kuomintang had encountered and submit some revisions for deliberation. These included recommendations regarding the powers of the National Assembly, the relationship between the Legislative Yuan and the Executive Yuan, and the question of provincial constitutions. The Kuomintang had also made it clear that should the Draft Constitution Examination Committee decide, upon careful deliberation to stick to the original suggestions, it would respect its decisions and withdraw the proposed revisions.

At no point did the Kuomintang insist on the acceptance of its views. On the other hand, the communists, disregarding the Agreement on Military Reorganization, refused to submit data on their military forces. Furthermore, they were steadily expanding their armed forces, as was evidenced by the creation in the northeast of the "United Democratic Army," which they wanted the government to recognize.

THE NORTHEAST PROBLEM

Since the Japanese surrender, the Chinese Government had tried hard to restore Chinese sovereignty in the northeast. At first it intended to land troops in Dairen, but the Soviet Union disagreed. Later, the Soviets indicated that Chinese troops could land at Yingkow, but when the ships carrying national forces arrived at the port, units of the communist Eight Route Army were already there building defense works. To avoid hostilities, these ships withdrew. Then, the communists tried to prevent national forces from moving by train via Shanhaikwan. The latter had to fight their way through to the northeast.

There were no Chinese Communist forces in the northeast prior to August, 1945. During the intervening months between Japanese surrender and the Soviet evacuation in March, 1946, Chinese Communists moved into Manchuria in large numbers. They succeeded in seizing 150 districts, more than four-fifths of its total area. They came into possession of arms and ammunition previously taken away from the once powerful Japanese Kwantung Army by the Soviet occupation forces.

China went to war in 1937 to recover the northeast. In seeking to restore Chinese sovereignty there, the government did not act in contravention of the cease-fire order, which specifically stipulated: "The cessation of hostilities order does not prejudice the military movement of forces of the National Army into or within Manchuria, which are for the purpose of restoring Chinese sovereignty."

Following the Soviet evacuation of Szepingkai, strategic point south of Changchun, communist troops attacked and occupied the town on March 16, blocking the advance of the national troops pushing northward. The three-man military sub-committee agreed on March 27 to send field teams to the northeast to check the spread of fighting. The communists, however, stood in the way and made it impossible for the field teams to carry out their mission there.

On April 14, the communists started attacking Changchun itself. General Marshall returned to China on April 17. The following day the communists occupied Changchun.

With Changchun in their hands, the attitude of the communist delegation in Chungking stiffened. On April 21, Chou En-lai sent a letter to Chang Chun, Shao Li-tze and Chang Li-sheng, government representatives, stating that the Communist party could not consider the choice of officials to participate in the government and that it could not present its list of delegates to the National Assembly. In so doing, the communists openly tore up the PCC resolutions on government reorganization and the scheduled convention of the National Assembly on May 5.

The National Government yielded to the communist demand that the National Assembly be postponed. Early in May, the government returned to Nanking.

As the communists refused to resume negotiations, government troops retook Szepingkai on May 19, and Changchun on May 23. President Chiang made a 12-day visit to the northeast. When he returned to Nanking on June 3, negotiations had already been resumed. Three days later, President Chiang issued another cease-fire order to the government troops in the northeast for a period of 15 days. In issuing the order, which obliged all government troops in the northeast to stop further advance, the President declared:

"This step is to enable the Chinese Communists to have another opportunity to implement the agreements entered into by them. This move does not affect the government's right to recover sovereignty in the northeast according to the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945. The following points should be settled satisfactorily within 15 days: (1) details for the complete cessation of hostilities in the northeast; (2) details and methods for the restoration of communications in areas south of Shanhaikwan and (3) a sound foundation for executing the agreement on February 25 regarding military demobilization and reorganization."

The committee of three—General Hsu Yung-chang, General Chou En-lai and General Marshall—met on June 10 to discuss the three points mentioned in the cease-fire order. To prevent delay in their enforcement, the government proposed to vest the power of arbitration in the U. S. representative. After two weeks of parley, the two sides came closer regarding the question of cease-fire and the resumption of communications. No agreement was possible over the question of arbitration power and military reorganization.

On June 21, when the 15-day truce expired, the government accepted the suggestion of Chinese minority parties and extended it for eight more days. The communist delegation demanded that an indefinite truce be declared in the northeast in the name of the committee of three. However, the details for military reorganization suggested by the communists completely nullified the agreement on military reorganization. Thus no complete accord on the northeast problem was possible.

On June 30, the government issued a statement, declaring: "Although the extended truce was up, the government's policy of peace and unity remains unchanged. Except in the case of self-defense, as necessitated by circumstances, government troops will refrain from military operations against communist forces in order to await the final solution of the various issues."

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS DRAG ON

Despite its failure to work out a peaceful settlement with the communists, the government went ahead and made preparations to terminate the period of Kuomintag political tutelage and to usher in the constitutional era. The Supreme National Defense Council, therefore, decided on July 3 to convene the National Assembly on November 12, 1946.

On July 9, Dr. J. Leighton Stuart was appointed U. S. Ambassador to China. Shortly afterwards, President Chiang went to Kuling, China's unofficial summer capital. Meanwhile, the communists started a violent anti-American campaign in various parts of the country. With their troops making some temporary gains in the field, they showed no more interest in resuming the peace parleys.

General Marshall and Ambassador Stuart, in their joint statement of August 10, explicitly pointed out that the redisposition of troops and the character of the local or county governments at places evacuated as a result of a redisposition of troops were hard knots in the current Chinese situation.

On August 14, the first anniversary of the Japanese surrender, President Chiang reiterated in a statement the government's stand to solve internal problems through political means. "The core of the present situation," he said, "lies in the fact that the Chinese Communist party, unlike opposition political parties in other countries, possesses independent armed forces and dominates certain regions. Despite this, a solution to all the current problems can still be found if the communists can prove their sincerity in deeds." To consolidate peace and national unity, he said, the fundamental way would be through the convocation of the National Assembly and the adoption of a democratic constitution.

During the ensuing negotiations, the communist troops were beseiging Tatung, in northern Shansi, and cutting the Tatung - Pucheng railway in southern Shansi. The communists had also launched a drive along the Lunghai railway. At this point, U. S. Ambassador Dr. Stuart proposed the formation of a committee of five, consisting of two representatives from the government, two from the Communist party and himself. His proposal was accepted. The committee first considered the question of reorganizing the government, in the belief that this would provide the basis for solution of other problems like cessation of hostilities, restoration of communications and reorganization of the armed forces. The prospects of the new committee were dimmed at once when the communists demanded immediate cessation of hostilities throughout the country and 14 seats for themselves and their satellite, the Democratic League, in the State Council. As the State Council could effect decisions by two-thirds majority, 14 seats would give the communists veto power to turn down any law or act that might not be to their liking, for they were sure they could count on the Democratic League for support under any circumstances.

On September 22, the communists presented a memorandum to General Marshall, asking the immediate convening of the three-man military sub-committee. President Chiang, upon his return to Nanking from Kuling on September 26, agreed but proposed the simultaneous convocation of both the committee of five and the committee of three. On October 1, the communists presented a letter to President Chiang, threatening that "if the Government does not instantly cease its military operations against Kalgan and the communist-held areas in its vicinity, the Communist party feels itself forced to presume that the National Government is thereby making public announcement of a total national split and abandonment of its professed policy of peaceful settlement." To the government's fresh proposal, they made no answer at all. In a statement issued on October 2, the government frankly set two maximum concessions to the communists:

1. The government was ready to give the communists 13 seats, instead of the original 12, in the State Council, on condition that they would without delay produce a list of its candidates for the State Council, as well as a list of its delegates to the National Assembly.

2. For immediate implementation of the program for the reorganization of the

army, location of the 18 communist divisions should be immediately determined and the communist troops should enter those assigned places accordingly. The above should be decided by the committee of three and carried out under the supervision of the Executive Headquarters in Peiping.

These offers failed to elicit any reply from the communists. In compliance with the communist demand that there be no further advance on Kalgan, the government proposed a truce of 10 days. This was rejected by the communists on the ground that cessation of hostilities should have no time limit. On October 21, representatives of various minority parties gathered in Nanking as intermediaries. They produced a mediatory proposal. But Yenan objected to the entire proposal and insisted that the government call off the National Assembly already scheduled for November 12, 1946.

On November 8, President Chiang issued an order instructing all government troops throughout China, beginning at noon, November 11, to cease firing and remain at their respective positions. The communist delegation in Nanking, which has been clamoring for an unconditional cease-fire order as the prerequisite to any successful peace talks, replied by denouncing the President's cease-fire order as "merely a preparation for further government attacks."

On November 11, the government announced a three-day postponement of the National Assembly to allow time for settlement of the outstanding internal problems and to enable parties other than the Kuomintang to attend the convocation. The communist spokesman demanded that President Chiang call off the "one-party" assembly and let the PCC convene it. He also demanded that the government withdraw its troops to their January 13 military positions.

When the government's cease-fire order became effective as of November 11, its troops stopped firing. The Yenan Communist headquarters started on the following day a general mobilization movement in the Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia border region and began to attack Yulin in northern Shensi. Members of the minority parties thereupon decided to abandon their role as mediators. Non-partisan leaders, such as Mo Teh-hui, Hu Lin, Hu Shih, and Miao Chia-min, members of the Young China party and of the Democratic Socialist party led by Carsun Chang all participated in the assembly.

The delegates to the assembly, according to the PCC resolution, were to total 2,050. Out of the 1,744 representatives elected and nominated, 847 (48%) were non-partisans; 725 (42%) Kuomintang members; and 172 (10%) members of the Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party. Following the adoption of the new constitution, the National Assembly was adjourned on Christmas Day, 1946.

During the 40-day meeting of the National Assembly, General Marshall and Ambassador Stuart made every effort to bring about the resumption of government-communist negotiations. Before Chou En-lai's return to Yenan on November 19, General Marshall asked him if the communists wanted him to continue his mediatory efforts. On December 6, almost a month later, Chou cabled General Marshall the conditions upon which the government-communist talks could be resumed,—dissolution of the 21-day-old National Assembly and restoration of troop positions as of January 13, 1946.

Three days later, President Chiang reaffirmed the government's intention to work for a political rather than military settlement of the government-communist disputes, but rejected Chou's two conditions as unacceptable.

END OF THE MARSHALL MISSION

General Marshall was appointed U. S. Secretary of State on January 7, 1947. Before he left Nanking, he declared that salvation of China would be the assumption of leadership by the liberals in the government and in the minority parties. He blamed extremists in both the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party for frustrating his efforts to restore peace in China.

General Marshall spoke of the new constitution as "a democratic constitution which in all major respects is in accordance with the principles laid down by the all-party Political Consultation Conference."

"It is unfortunate," he said, "that the communists did not see fit to participate in the assembly, since the constitution that has been adopted seems to include every major point that they wanted."

On January 16, President Chiang notified the communist representative and spokesman in Nanking, Wang Pin-nan, through U. S. Ambassador Dr. Stuart, of the government's intention to send General Chang Chih-chung to Yenan to resume peace talks. The following day, the Yenan Communist headquarters issued a statement through the New China News Agency, saying, "This is absolutely deceptive in effect."

In a communique published on January 20, the government announced its desire to resume negotiations with the Chinese Communist party in order to put an end to the civil strife and to reorganize the government with the participation of all minority parties. It set forth the following four points:

(1) The government was willing to send a representative to Yenan, or to invite communist delegates to come to Nanking to resume the peace negotiations, or to call a round-table conference to be attended by representatives of the various parties and independents.

(2) The government and the communists would immediately order their troops to cease hostilities and remain at their positions and negotiate effective measures to ensure cessation of hostilities.

(3) The government was prepared to resume negotiations with the communists for enforcement of the army reorganization program and restoration of communications in conformity with principles laid down by the Committee of Three.

(4) In regions where hostilities were taking place, the government was ready to negotiate with the communists for a fair and reasonable solution.

The government, on January 24, requested Ambassador Stuart to convey to the communists these four points. The communists rejected them and insisted on the government's acceptance of their own conditions, namely, the restoration of the military positions of January 13, 1946, and the abolition of the constitution.

As a result of the Communist party's insistence on their two impossible demands, the U. S. Government announced on January 29 the abandonment of U. S. efforts to mediate between the Chinese Government and the communists. The decision involved the severance of U. S. relations with the committee of three established for the purpose of terminating hostilities in China, of which General Marshall was the chairman, with its Executive Headquarters in Peiping, and withdrawal of all American forces from China.

No sooner had the U. S. Government announced its decision than Chinese Communists were attempting to sever the important Peiping-Tientsin railway. Communist offensives were also intensified against Paoting on the Peiping-Hankow line, and in Shantung and Kansu provinces. "There is no more meditation," the communist spokesman in Nanking was quoted to have said, "the only way out is to fight."

Statements from Yenan were daily becoming more arrogant and belligerent. The American action, they said, was not enough; complete withdrawal of U. S. interest—an American hands-off policy with respect to China—was demanded. The Chinese Communists, as if anticipating a day when they would control all China, declared that they would not recognize treaties, agreements and other transactions between China and the United States, as concluded by their respective governments.

The attitude of the National Government could be summarized as follows: (1) the government had not abandoned, and would not abandon, its policy of settling political problems by political means, and (2) China's political democratization would be carried on, with or without communist participation.

In April, 1947, the base of the Chinese Government was broadened to include the Kuomintang, the Democratic Socialist party, the Young China party and non-partisans. The State Council, which would direct China's affairs during the transitional period, was to carry out the mandate of the National Assembly of 1946 and prepare for the inauguration of the constitutional government.

The composition of the State Council was as follows: the presidents of the five Yuan (*ex officio* members) five seats; Kuomintang, 12; Democratic Socialists, four; Young China party, four; and independents, four. Eleven seats were held open for the communists and the Democratic League. The reorganization of the State Council was preceded by the election of minority party members to the Legislative Yuan and Control Yuan. In the subsequent Executive Yuan reshuffle, the minority parties and independents were given the vice-premiership, five portfolios (communications, economic affairs, agriculture and forestry, public health and Mongolian and Tibetan affairs) and five ministerships without portfolio. The process of transforming the one-party government into a multi-party government was thereupon completed.

The reorganized government still adhered to the policy of resolving the communist problem by political means. In his administrative report to the People's Political Council on May 21, 1947, Premier Chang Chun declared: "Settlement by peaceful means shall remain the basic principle for solution of the Chinese Communist problem. If only the communists

show willingness for peace and the railway communications can be completely restored, the government will seek national peace and unity through political channels!"

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

Military Campaigns, 1948

Communist disturbances spread throughout north and northeast China in spite of repeated efforts exerted by the government to restore peace. The government soon realized that if communist rebellion was not speedily suppressed, constitutional democracy, unity and security would be jeopardized. The people in consequence would continue to be exposed to great hardships and suffering.

On July 4, 1947, President Chiang Kai-shek's proposal for national general mobilization to quell the communist rebellion was adopted by the National Government. Hostilities had been raging for some time between the government and communist forces. The general mobilization order formally ended the period of uncertainty.

By the end of 1948, more than a year after large scale fighting began, battles and skirmishes extended from Changchun in the northeast to places south of the Yellow river in central China. Outnumbered by the communists, government forces successively abandoned all important cities in the northeast, including Changchun and Mukden.

In their fanatic attempts to oust the government forces from the northeast, the communists under Lin Piao had launched as many as seven offensives in the winter of 1947-48 alone. Fighting continued throughout 1948, and both sides suffered very heavy casualties.

The situation in the northeast became tense in October, 1948, when the Reds launched an all-out attack on Changchun, which was lost to the communists on October 23. The evacuation of Mukden by the nationalists was announced on November 2. Communist troops attacking Mukden, according to the Ministry of National Defense, totalled ten armies and five independent divisions. The evacuation of Mukden was soon followed by that of Yingkow and Chinwangtao. The entire northeast thus went behind the Iron Curtain.

Lin Piao's troops almost immediately moved into north China to threaten Tientsin and Peiping. Tangshan, an important railway city northeast of Tientsin, was taken by the communists on December 12, 1948. By the middle of December, communist troops coming from the northeast to the Peiping-Tientsin area totalled 11 columns or armies, which, together with Nieh Yung-chen's Red units, gradually pushed to the outer defense areas of the two great north China cities. Peiping had been besieged by the communists since December 15.

The fall of Shihchiachwang, a railway hub in Central Hopei, on November 14, 1947, was the first major reverse for government forces in north China. During the following year, though under the unified command of General Fu Tso-yi, government troops made little improvement. By the end of 1948, with the Reds well consolidated in the northeast and fighting gradually shifting toward the Yangtze river regions, the defense of north China had become even precarious. Kalgan, capital of Chahar, fell into communist hands on December 25, 1948, and as a result, General Fu's forces suffered irretrievable losses.

In Shansi, government troops under General Yen Hsi-shan held Taiyuan and its adjacent areas. Fighting there continued throughout the year. Taiyuan, the capital, and its immediate environs were the scene of a bitter battle for many months. The communists did not succeed in breaking through the city defenses until April, 1949.

Further to the west, following the capture of Yenan and other cities in north Shensi in March, 1947, some of General Hu Tsung-nan's divisions were transferred across the Yellow river to south Shansi. The communists under Peng Teh-huai and Ho Lung, taking advantage of the situation, staged a comeback in north Shensi early in 1948. The communists first attacked Yichwan and then Lochwan, on the highway from Yenan to Sian. While their attempt on Lochwan ended in a debacle, the communists in a five-day battle beginning February 24 took Yichwan.

The loss of Yichwan led to a drastic change in the government's strategy. Instead of spreading its forces over a wide area, the government began to concentrate its forces in a few well-chosen strategic spots, meanwhile sending out strong columns against communist field forces. Yenan, isolated since the fall of Yichwan, was evacuated on April 21. About the same time, General Hu Tsung-nan's army laid a trap in the areas of Linyu, Fenghsiang and Yenyang in west Shensi and inflicted heavy losses on Peng Teh-huai's contingents. Shortly afterwards, cavalry units under General Ma Chi-yuan of Chinghai routed Peng's remnants near Chingchwan in eastern Kansu on May 5.

As a result of this battle, the government's position in the northwest was considerably improved and the control over the Sian-Lanchow highway was regained.

The areas between the Yellow river and the Yangtze valley saw most of the battles fought in the past year. Following the government's offensive in central Shantung, from the spring till late autumn in 1947, Chen Yi's rebel forces had to flee in two columns, one to northern Kiangsu and the other to Hopei via western Shantung. Liu Po-cheng's forces, coming down to meet Chen Yi's units, found after crossing the Yellow river to the south that their own retreat had been cut off by government troops. Liu had to improvise his strategy and headed southward, cutting a swath in the thinly-guarded government areas in Honan, Anhwei and Hupeh and pushing down to points only a few miles from Kiukiang, the gateway to Kiangsi across the Yangtze river. Chen Yi's forces, after a few futile attempts on Hsuchow, government stronghold in north Kiangsu, fled by the middle of October to north Anhwei and to the formerly flooded Yellow river areas in east Honan. Meanwhile, Chen Keng's units in south Shansi crossed the Yellow river in late August and reached the Funiu mountains in east Honan a month later, bringing total communist strength south of the Yellow river to some 240,000 men.

Liu Po-cheng's venture into the Yangtze river districts proved of short duration. Pushed back by strong government columns, Liu led his six armies into the Tapieh mountains on the Honan, Anhwei and Hupeh borders, hoping to turn this into a base from which to threaten Nanking in the southeast and Hankow in the southwest. He boasted that he would cross the Yangtze river in May, 1948, and enter Szechwan in August. As a counter-measure, the government set up a new command at Kiukiang with General Pai Chung-hsi, then Minister of National Defense, in charge of operations. Toward the end of November, 1947, the bulk of Liu's forces was dislodged from the Tapieh mountains.

After that, Liu's forces were kept on the run until they reached southern Honan. From there, with the help of Chen Keng's men who had previously taken Loyang on April 6, Liu started attacking Nanyang and its adjacent areas during the last week of May, 1948. Again foiled, Liu used Tangho in south Honan as an operating base, foraging into northern Hupeh in the direction of Hsiangyang and Fancheng. These two cities fell under the communist onslaught in mid-July, but Hsiangyang was recovered by government forces on August 5. Then Liu Po-cheng's forces fled back to south Honan in areas around Fangcheng and Wuyang.

Like Liu Po-cheng's contingents, Chen Yi's forces were under constant pressure by government troops since their escape from Shantung. In the middle of June, 1948, Chen Yi sent three armies against Kaifeng, the provincial capital of Honan, and deployed four more armies in the surrounding areas to engage government reinforcements moving to relieve Kaifeng.

Land communication between Kaifeng and the outside was cut off on June 22. The following day the Red forces broke into the city. Four days later, however, they were driven out by government forces. In a subsequent battle in the former Yellow river flooded areas, which began in June 28, some 150,000 rebels were surrounded between Suihsien and Tunghsu. At first the government's 74th Division and other units suffered considerable losses. With the support of the air force, powerful goverment forces closing in from both flanks had inflicted over 40,000 casualties on the rebels by July 4. Three days later, the rebels, realizing that they had lost the battle, broke off and started a general retreat. The remnants of the six armies comprising Chen Yi's main strength withdrew into western Shantung while his 3rd and 8th Armies headed for hills in south Honan.

Even before the battle in east Honan took place, such of Chen Yi's troops as had been in Shantung began to besiege Yenchow, railway town south of Tsinan. With the return of Chen Yi's battered units into Shantung, the rebels stepped up their attack against Yenchow. The small government garrison evacuated Yenchow in mid-July.

Having previously occupied Weihsien, east of Tsinan, along the railway to Tsingtao, on April 28, and now with Yenchow in their hands, the communists proceeded with their plan for the conquest of Tsinan, the provincial capital of Shantung. On September 16, they launched the expected offensive against Tsinan with some 180,000 men under Chen Yi.

During the first two days of the battle, strong government airborne reinforcements landed at regular intervals at Tsinan's airfield. Government garrisons totalling some 80,000 men under Wang Yao-wu were thus enabled to hold their positions in the city's immediate vicinity against incessant assaults.

By September 9, however, the communists had completely surrounded Tsinan following their capture of the city's north airfield. On September 25, after ten days of severe fighting, Tsinan fell. The fall of Tsinan marked a decisive turn in the entire war situation which was followed by a series of government reverses.

The greatest battle ever fought in China's civil war was the battle of Hsuchow, which lasted from November 9 to December 4. The communists threw into this battle 550,000 men, composed of 19 columns (or armies) and three independent brigades under Chen Yi, five columns under Liu Po-cheng and two columns under Chen Keng. The government troops used slightly fewer troops. After the battle was concluded, the communists suffered at least 200,000 casualties.

This battle was immediately followed by the battle of Pengpu and Suhsien, which dragged into late December. The government lost some of its best armies, including those under the command of Huang Po-tao and Chiu Ching-chuan, who were killed in action.

Hsuchow was given up on December 3 when its defenders went to the aid of other government units fighting in Suhsien and other areas south of Hsuchow. This battle began late November and ended by the middle of December, during which period the communists lost 159,000 men.

Following the loss of Hsuchow, the fighting drew closer and closer to Nanking. Intense political activities began both in Nanking and Shanghai in December, 1948, resulting in the retirement of President Chiang Kai-shek in January, 1949.

Resumption of Peace Negotiations

President Chiang Kai-shek announced his retirement on January 21, 1949, when he left Nanking for his home town, Fenghwa in Chekiang province. His statement on retirement reads:

"Since I issued my New Year message urging the restoration of peace, the entire nation, with one accord, has echoed its unreserved support. However, although more than two weeks have now elapsed, warfare has not yet drawn to a close and the ultimate aim of achieving peace has not been realized. Consequently an end to the people's suffering still is not in sight.

"With the hope that the hostilities may be brought to an end and the people's suffering be relieved, I have decided to retire. As from January 21, Vice-President Li Tsung-jen will exercise the duties and powers of President in accordance with Article 49 of the constitution, which provides that in the event the President, for any reason, is unable to perform his functions, his duties and power shall be exercised by the Vice-President. I hope the entire nation, including both military and civilian population, as well as the various government departments and agencies, will unreservedly, and with one heart, support Vice-President Li in order that a lasting peace may be achieved.

"I have devoted my entire life to the work of the people's revolution, observing strictly the Three Principles of the People. From the fifteenth year of the Republic when we set out from Canton on the Northern Punitive Expedition to the time when national unity was achieved, I never for a moment failed to consider it my sacred duty to implement the principle of nationalism, give effect to the principle of democracy, and improve the livelihood of the people.

"At the same time, I have always realized that it is absolutely necessary to secure peace for the country before a sound foundation can be laid for the improvement of the nation's political and economic life. This is why for more than twenty years, while I was sometimes forced to resort to military measures in dealing with domestic affairs, I have always been prepared to make personal sacrifices and concessions. The only exception was the war of resistance against Japanese aggression, in which case I was determined to fight to the bitter end. This is a record well borne out by facts.

"My earnest prayers will have been answered if the Communist party henceforth comes to the full realization of the grave situation confronting the country, orders a cease-fire, and agrees to commence peace talks with the government. Thus the people will be spared intense suffering, the spiritual and material resources of the nation may be preserved and its territorial integrity and political sovereignty maintained, and the continuity of the nation's history, culture and social order may be perpetuated and the people's livelihood and freedom safeguarded."

President Chiang Kai-shek also urged a peaceful settlement of the communist problem in his New Year message to the Chinese people, in which he said, among other things,

"If a negotiated peace is not detrimental to the national independence and sovereignty, but will contribute to the welfare of the people; if the constitution is not violated and constitutionalism preserved, the democratic form of government maintained; if the entity of the armed forces is safeguarded; and if the people's free mode of living and their minimum living standard are protected, then I shall be satisfied. If peace can be secured, I am not at all concerned about my own position."

After prolonged deliberation, the communists gave their answer in a statement by Mao Tse-tung, issued on January 14. In this statement Mao listed eight conditions for the commencement of peace negotiations. These demands were:

(1) Punishment of war criminals. [The communists had previously issued an incomplete list of 45 "first-class war criminals," headed by President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek and including nearly all high government officials. A second list was issued later to include more government officials and some prominent social and educational leaders.]

(2) Abrogation of the constitution.

(3) Abolition of the legitimacy of Kuomintang political institutions.

(4) Reorganization of the revolutionary armies in accordance with democratic principles.

(5) Confiscation of bureaucratic capital.

(6) Reformation of the agrarian system.

(7) Abrogation of the treaties of national betrayal. [These include practically all treaties concluded with the U.S.A. after the end of the war.]

(8) Convocation of a Political Consultation Conference without the participation of reactionary elements, establishment of a democratic coalition government and the take-over of all powers from the Nanking Kuomintang reactionary government and its lower levels of government.

The harsh communist terms, which many observers believed to be equivalent to a demand for unconditional surrender, did not deter the government from continuing its peace efforts. On January 19, the Executive Yuan issued the following statement: "The government, in deference to the general wishes of the people for the early realization of peace, hereby makes known its desire for both the government and communist forces to cease fire unconditionally and immediately and for both sides to appoint delegates to start peace negotiations."

During this period, the Chinese Government had requested the allied powers to mediate in the dispute. On January 8, identical notes were sent to the United States, British, Soviet and French governments through their ambassadors in Nanking, signifying the Chinese Government's sincere desire for a peace settlement with the Chinese Communist party and its readiness to accept any possible intermediary for the initiation of negotiations. On January 20, a spokesman of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that answers from the four governments had been received. While indicating their hope for any early restoration of domestic peace in China, they did not feel in a position to act as an intermediary in the current situation.

Under the direction of Acting President Li Tsung-jen, however, repeated efforts were made for the beginning of the negotiations. Telegrams and letters were exchanged between Acting President Li and Mao Tse-tung for concrete arrangements. It was later agreed that the place for the meeting should be Peiping.

On January 22, the government appointed a peace delegation, whose departure from Nanking was repeatedly delayed owing to the negotiation of local peace for the Peiping area. A local truce for Peiping was announced on January 22, and a joint office for the take-over was established on February 2. Peiping was thus thrown under communist rule.

On February 14, 1949, an unofficial peace delegation left Shanghai for Peiping to make preliminary arrangements for the negotiation. This delegation consisted of W. W. Yen, Chang Shih-chao, Kiang Yung, and Shao Li-tze. They met Yeh Chien-ying and other communist leaders in Peiping. On February 25, they proceeded to Shihchiachwang to meet Mao Tse-tung and Chou En-lai. Their talks also covered the resumption of postal and shipping services between Shanghai and north China.

This unofficial delegation left Peiping for Nanking on February 27, bringing the peace talks one step further.

On March 26, the government announced the reorganization of the peace delegation to Peiping: The delegates were Chang Chih-chung, Shao Li-tze, Huang Shao-hsiung, Chang Shih-chao, and Li Chen. Later, the appointment of a sixth member, Liu Fei, was also announced.